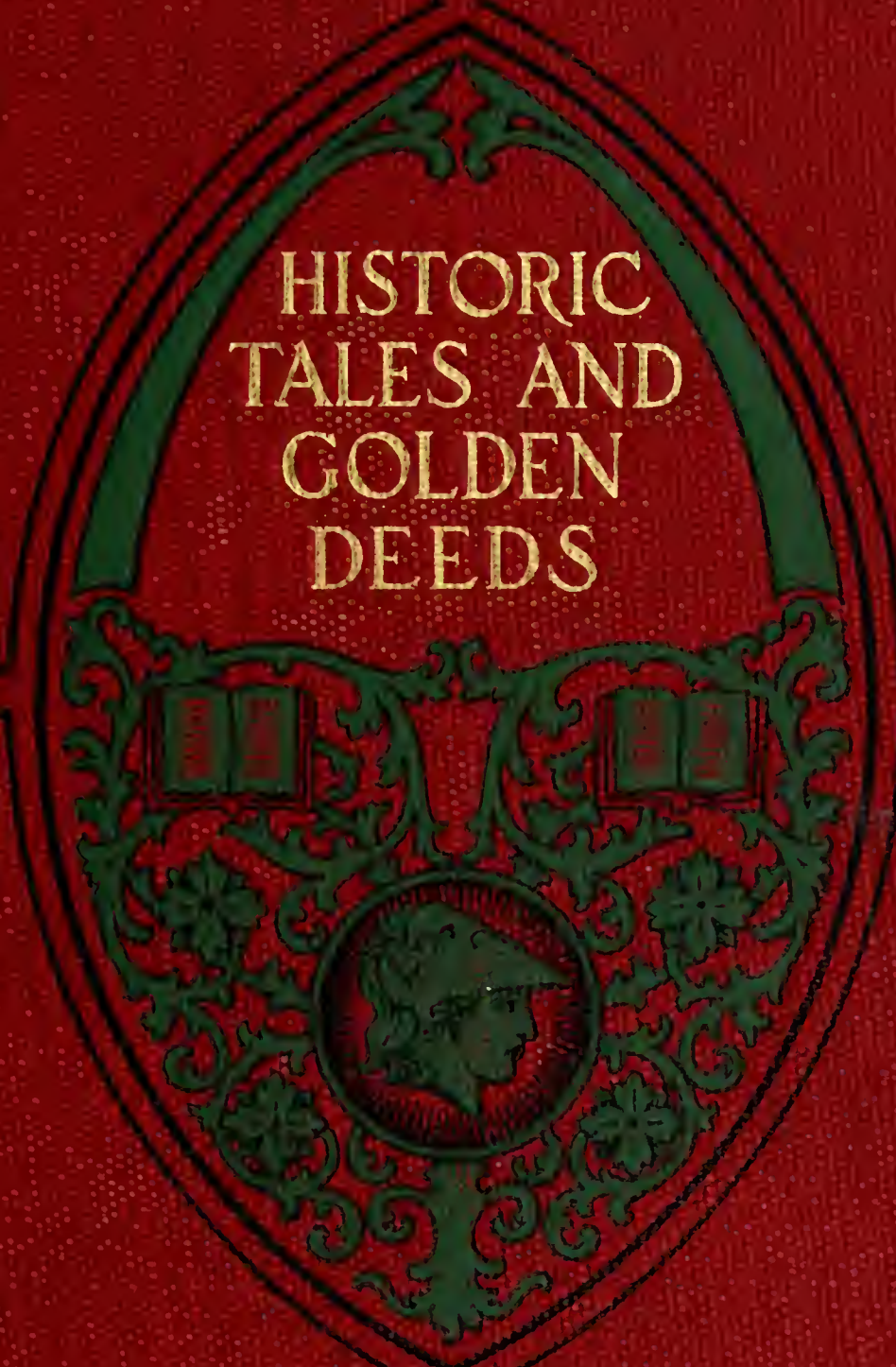


HISTORIC  
TALES AND  
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DEEDS





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# RACES OF MANKIND

WE can often tell by the appearance of a person to what nation he belongs. Thus we can say of a person that he appears to be an American, an Englishman, a Frenchman, a German, etc., as the case may be. But though there are differences between the types of these and other nations, we often find an individual American who resembles, say, an individual German, or a Frenchman who resembles an Italian.

But if we compare any of these with a Chinaman, we never find such a resemblance; there are always many differences easy to see. Still less are we likely to be in any doubt in distinguishing between an American or a Chinaman and a negro.

Taking into account the resemblances and differences between peoples of different nations, we are able to collect all the races of the earth into a number of groups. The members of each group have numerous resemblances to other members of the same group, while having strong unlikenesses to the members of other groups.

These great groups are at most five in number, and three of them are, at any rate, far more important than the other two. These three most important groups are: (1) the Caucasian group, or white race; (2) the Mongolian group, or yellow race, of which the Chinaman may be taken as the example; and (3) the Ethiopian group, or black race, of which the negro is the type.

The other groups that are sometimes added are (4) the copper-colored North and South American Indians, or red race, and (5) the Malays and Polynesians, or brown race. It is now, however, generally held that the American Indians are a branch, in distant times, from the Mongolian group, as they have many points in common with them. We can trace the mountain ridge of Asia, by way of the Aleutian Islands, to North America. If in times gone by the land was higher than at present, the ridge, the summits of which now form the Aleutian Islands, was dry land, along which the peoples could pass from one continent to the other.

The Malays and Polynesians are believed to be a mixed race, mainly Mongolian, of comparatively recent origin. We may therefore regard the two smaller groups as members of the Mongolian group, and include all the peoples of the earth under the three great groups—Caucasian, Mongolian, and Ethiopian.

The most striking feature of the members of the Caucasian group is the general whiteness of the skin. There are, however, two different types of this group: first, the fair-skinned type, often florid or ruddy, with fair or brown hair and blue or brown eyes; secondly, the swarthy-skinned, sometimes brown, type, with dark hair and eyes. Other features of the Caucasian group are the generally regular features and oval faces, and a stature above the average.

The distinguishing features of the Mongolian race are the dull yellowish skin, sometimes passing into brown in color, black, coarse straight hair, almond-shaped slanting eyes, high cheek-bones, and flat features.

The Ethiopian races are marked by blackish or jet-black skins, by short, woolly, jet-black hair, prominent eyes, high cheek-bones, broad flat noses, and thick lips.

These three great divisions are also widely different in mental characteristics. The Caucasian group is by far the most highly developed mentally, and possesses the most active and enterprising temperament. The Mongolian group is characterized by a sluggish and silent temperament. Hence the members of this group tend to settle down without wish for further progress. Hence, too, they generally show a great power of endurance. The Ethiopian group is very much the lowest in point of development. Among its members are to be included most of the really savage races. They are self-indulgent and averse to mental exertion, fitful in character, and they readily pass from mirth to cruelty.

The Caucasian group had for its original home the districts round the Mediterranean in Western

Asia, Europe, and Northern Africa. The three great divisions are the Aryans, including the Hindus, Persians, and most of the peoples of modern Europe; the Semites, of Mesopotamia, Syria, Arabia, and Northern Africa; and the Hamites, of North and East Africa.

The Mongolian group falls into three chief divisions. The first of these is formed by the Mongols of Asia, together with some representatives in Eastern Europe. These Mongols especially inhabit the table-lands of Central and Eastern Asia, and the lands flanking them eastward and southeastward. They include the peoples of Turkestan, Tibet, China, Indo-China, and Japan. The second great Mongolian division includes the peoples of the Malay Peninsula and the western part of the East Indies, of the Philippines, and of the islands of Eastern Polynesia. The third division comprises the Indians of North and South America.

The Ethiopian group is divided into two great divisions. The first of these is the African division, including the true negroes of the Soudan, and the Bantus—Zulus, Kaffirs, etc.—of Central and Southern Africa. The second, or eastern division, includes the Papuans of New Guinea, the peoples of the Pacific islands known as Melanesia, and the aborigines of Australia.

### THE CAUCASIAN PEOPLES

THE special features of the Aryan branch of the Caucasian group as compared with the others are: (1) its higher stage of civilization; (2) the progressive nature of that civilization; (3) the greater power of expansion.

The geographical distribution of the Aryan races over India, Persia, and Europe gives to them an area very favorable in its geographical conditions to their development. In the temperate part of the Aryan district grew up the early civilizations of Europe, from which the present civilization may be traced.

The first of these civilizations was the Greek, which grew up in the islands of the Archipelago and on the shores of the Ægean Sea. The Greek civilization was greatest in art. In sculpture, in architecture, and in poetry the Greeks have never been excelled, even if, indeed, they have been equaled. The Greeks, too, laid down the principles of great systems of philosophy, and made some of the first great discoveries in mathematics. Hence their civilization, though the glory of ancient Greece be past, still exercises a great influence upon the world.

Next arose the civilization of Rome, a civilization less distinguished in its sense of beauty than

that of Greece, but full of practical power and strength. For the chief glories of Rome we look not so much to her poets and sculptors—though she had both—as to her generals and statesmen, her governors and engineers. Over all the countries around the Mediterranean Sea Rome established her control.

It was at one time generally held that the original ancestors of the Aryan races came from the table-lands of Central Asia, and that the Greeks and Romans represented some of the earlier immigrants. The Celts also, of Gaul and Britain, were, it was believed, comparatively early immigrants. It was also held that later the Aryan peoples known as Teutonic and Slavonic spread westward in successive waves. Though a great deal of doubt has of late been thrown upon this view of the origin of the Aryans, it is at any rate certain that after the Roman Empire had passed its highest point of power, great movements of the peoples known as Teutonic or Germanic took place. These movements were connected with incursions of the Slavonic peoples upon the Teutons, which tended to drive the latter westward.

We know that the Anglo-Saxons, who were tribes of the Teutonic peoples, crossed the North Sea, conquered Britain, and founded the kingdom of England. But this was only one movement in many which finally shattered the Roman Empire.

Then succeeded the long period known as the Middle Ages, during which the nations of Western Europe gradually became consolidated within themselves. During this time, however, civilization progressed very slowly. Then came the great period of the Renaissance, or revival of learning, when a new and vigorous civilization, largely founded upon the learning of Greece and Rome, sprang up. From this time we may date the rapid rise of the civilization of Western Europe. The progressive character of this civilization is its chief feature. This progress has been chiefly marked in the direction of the discovery of the laws of nature, and in making use of those laws in the service of man. How rapid that progress has been we shall at once see, if we reflect how recent has been the introduction of the steam-engine, the telegraph, the telephone, and numberless other inventions. It is this progressive civilization that has given the leadership of the world to the white peoples, and has rendered them far more important than either of the other races.

We must not, however, imagine that we have outdistanced the ancient civilizations in all respects. For example, we have never equaled the old Greeks in the art of sculpture.





FROM AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

1. A HUNGARIAN.

2. A HUNGARIAN WOMAN.

3. A BOHEMIAN WOMAN.

4. A SOUTH AUSTRIAN PEASANT.

Of the various states into which Europe came to be divided after the break-up of the Roman Empire, some have especially retained the marks of the Roman or Latin influence. Thus France, Italy, Spain, and Portugal speak tongues derived from the Roman language, Latin. Hence we sometimes call them the Latin nations, though we must be careful to remember that they are by no means entirely Latin in blood. The French people, for example, are largely Celtic in descent, with a considerable admixture of Teutonic blood, especially among the French of the north. The modern Greeks are in the main descendants from the ancient Greeks, from whose language the modern Greek tongue is derived. The Celtic peoples form what has sometimes been called the "Celtic fringe" on the extreme west of Europe. In no case do they at present form an independent state. Their chief modern representatives are found in Brittany, Cornwall, Wales, the Highlands of Scotland, and Ireland.

The peoples who are mainly Teutonic in blood inhabit the northwestern countries of Europe. They include the English and the Lowland Scots, the Germans, Danes, Norwegians, Swedes, and Dutch. The next great division of the Aryan peoples, the Slavonic, inhabits the eastern portion of Europe, Russia and Poland, Rumania, Bulgaria, and Servia.

Several countries have so far been omitted. Of these, Belgium has a mixed population, somewhat like that of northeastern France; Switzerland is partly French, partly German, and partly Italian in race and in speech; while the empire of Austria-Hungary is of very mixed composition. Austria itself is German or Teutonic; Bohemia, Slavonic; while the Magyars, most numerous of the peoples of Hungary, are not Aryan at all, but belong to the Mongolian race. To the same race also belong the Turks, the Finns, the Lapps, and the Tartars of Russia.

The chief representatives of the Aryan race in Asia, other than European immigrants, are the Persians and the Hindus. In both, however, there have been considerable admixtures with other races. The Persians and the Hindus long ago evolved civilizations of their own, and attained considerable skill in some arts and in literature. These civilizations, however, long ago became stationary.

The other main branches of the Caucasian race, the Semites and the Hamites, have not equaled the Aryan peoples in their capacity for civilization. It is, however, noticeable that several of the Semitic peoples have in the past shown great capacity for progress. Thus the Assyrians and the Phœnicians were leaders in the dawn of civil-

ization, the Arabs were one of the most civilized peoples of the Middle Ages, and the scattered Jews are fully abreast of the civilizations of the lands where they have found homes.

We have said that one especial point about the white races was their power of expansion. By that we mean that more than any other race they have spread far beyond their original homes and settled in distant lands. This expansion of the white race beyond its original boundaries did not begin until comparatively late. In the Middle Ages there were indeed wars of conquest continually going on, but these were wars the object of which was the gain of territory by one white people at the expense of another. But after the revival of learning, which, as we have seen, marks the beginning of the progress of the modern civilizations, men's interests turned to the unknown quarters of the earth. In their curiosity to find out what lay beyond the trackless seas they were aided by improvements in navigation which were introduced about this time.

The two great pioneers of this expansion were Columbus, who, in the service of Spain, brought America to the knowledge of Europeans by his voyage in 1492, and Vasco da Gama, a Portuguese, who in 1497 discovered the sea-route to India. Thus the sea-routes both to west and east were opened up. The route to the east, though vastly important to trade, did not lead to the establishment of colonies in the true sense, for in the tropical regions Europeans cannot permanently settle down with their families.

The westward ocean-route, however, led to the great expansion of the white races, by which the whole of the great continent of America passed from the hands of the red men into their possession. The leaders in the movement were the Spaniards, who, by virtue of the discovery of Columbus, claimed the whole continent. The Portuguese also made extensive settlements. A decision of the Pope gave Brazil to the Portuguese and the rest of South America to the Spaniards. Hence it comes that all the states of America from Mexico southward are Spanish in origin, except Brazil, which was originally Portuguese, and the Guianas, which were originally Dutch. All these colonies of Spain and Portugal have now, however, left the parent countries and become independent republics.

The great struggle for the possession of North America took place between England and France. These countries, early in the seventeenth century, and at about the same time, founded their first colonies in America—the English in Virginia, the French in Canada. The struggle was decided in favor of England by the Seven Years' War,





## THE NATIVES OF RUSSIA-IN-EUROPE.

## I. A PEASANT WOMAN.

## 2. A COACHMAN.

### 3. A NURSE.

4. A CHARACTERISTIC PEASANT'S COTTAGE IN THE HEART OF RUSSIA.



1756-63, and thus the whole of the North American continent north of the Mexican boundary passed under the control of English-speaking peoples; the old English colonies along the Atlantic coasts expanding into our great republic, the United States of America, while the old French colonies along the St. Lawrence, with later English settlements, formed the vast Dominion of Canada. The extreme northwest of North America, Alaska, was purchased by the United States from Russia in 1867.

The next great field for expansion was Australia. Here the British had an unrestricted field, and the colonies which now form the Commonwealth of Australia were founded. New Zealand was also settled by people of the English race.

The progress of African exploration during the nineteenth century made it evident that there were large areas of valuable land in that continent. Thus in the latter part of that century arose what has been called the "scramble for Africa" on the part of the great European powers. As a result, nearly the whole of Africa has been divided up among Great Britain, France, and Germany. Portugal retains considerable areas, the remains of her old colonies upon the eastern and western coasts, and Italy has comparatively unimportant possessions on the east coast. Few of these possessions, however, can yet be looked upon as expansions of the white races, and many wise men think that the greater part of Africa can never be suited for European colonization.

From this point of view, the most important at present are the British colonies of the south, where are enormous areas suitable for white people in Cape Colony, Natal, the Orange River Colony, the Transvaal, and Rhodesia. As these colonies originated from the old Dutch colony at the Cape of Good Hope, many of the inhabitants, particularly in Cape Colony, the Orange River Colony, and the Transvaal, are of Dutch descent. The French possessions in Northern Africa, Algiers and Tunis, are also capable of settlement by Europeans.

In Asia the chief colonizing expansion has been that of Russia, which has spread gradually eastward to the Pacific, and in the south into Turkestan and to the borders of India.

### THE GREAT POWERS

A CERTAIN small number of nations, being vastly stronger and richer than the others, largely control the affairs of the rest of the world. These nations we call the Great Powers or the World Powers. Until lately we should certainly have

said that all the Great Powers belonged to the white race, but during recent years we have seen the Japanese, a yellow race, rising to the position of a Great Power and taking a place of equality beside the Western nations.

Apart from this exception, the Great Powers are all white races. The Teutonic branch of the Aryan race claims three of these—the United States, the United Kingdom, and Germany. The Latin races are represented by France and Italy, the Slavonic by Russia, while the remaining Great Power is the mixed kingdom of Austria-Hungary.

Of these World Powers, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland has been foremost as a great colonizing and naval power. This country led the way in the great industrial development of the nineteenth century. Hence she became the foremost manufacturing and commercial country of the world; and though other countries, notably the United States and Germany, have made great strides in late years, the United Kingdom is still the greatest commercial country in the world. An important part of her commerce consists in the carrying trade. Not only are great numbers of her ships employed in carrying on her own trade, but she also finds the vessels in which a great part of the trade of other countries is carried on. London, the capital of the United Kingdom, has long been the center of the world in money matters and in many departments of commerce.

The British Empire is, in a special sense, a world-empire, since it consists of very numerous detached portions scattered over the face of the earth. The possessions of Great Britain, like her commerce, are found in every sea.

Our own country, the United States of America, is in its origin, its speech, its literature, its religion, a daughter state of Great Britain, though far exceeding the mother country in area and in population.

As "every school-boy knows," when the American colonies of England broke their connection with the old country in 1776, they formed the United States of America. At that time they occupied merely the strip of land between the Alleghanies and the Atlantic coast. Now the States stretch clear across the continent and include an area of a little more than three million square miles, forming a country only exceeded in size by the British, Russian, and Chinese empires. Besides the States of the Union, the republic possesses not only Alaska, but also Hawaii, Porto Rico, and the Philippine Islands.

The great size and the almost boundless resources of the United States, coupled with the





PARSEES OF INDIA.



industry and energy of their inhabitants, present vast room for still further development. For many years the people were content to devote themselves to the affairs of their own country without taking much share in the affairs of the world, at any rate outside America. But of late years, especially since the war with Spain, the United States has taken its place as a Great Power, with the full acknowledgment of the other World Powers.

The United States is a federation of States managing their own internal affairs, but united for common purposes under a central republican government. Germany is a federation of monarchical states united under a central government whose head is the German Emperor. The Emperor is also the King of the most important member of the federation, Prussia. The German Empire as it exists to-day is of quite recent growth. For a very long period Germany was weakened by the fact that it was made up of a great number of independent states which were often unfriendly or even hostile to one another. These states were welded together in the war with France, and in 1871 the King of Prussia became German Emperor. To this first Emperor, William, and to two other men, Bismarck the statesman and Moltke the soldier, the foundation of the German Empire is due.

The war with France established the position of Germany as the first military power in Europe. In the years following she developed her manufactures and trade, and greatly increased her navy. She also made great efforts, temporarily successful, to found a colonial empire; but in the Great War she lost one by one all her colonies.

France, for a long period the most important country in Europe, the first in war and the first in the arts, passed through a century of troublous times from the outbreak of the great Revolution at the end of the eighteenth century. Her ancient monarchy was thrown down, and a republic instituted, only to give way to the empire of Napoleon I. So the changes went on, until the third empire under Napoleon III. fell in the disastrous war with Germany. From that time France has been a republic. The war left France apparently crushed. But few things are more remarkable in the history of nations than the rapidity with which France repairs her disasters. The industry and thrift which are strongly marked among large sections of the French people have much to do with this. With remarkable rapidity France repaid the heavy war-charges laid upon her, reorganized her army and navy, and once more took her place among the leading nations of the world.

The empire of Austria-Hungary is important from its size and its natural resources, but it is weakened by the fact that it is not one nation, but a collection of nations, which happen to have the same sovereign. There is little fellowship between the different peoples of the empire, and between some of them there is often bitter hostility. Within the bounds of the empire there are over fifty separate states, and something like twenty different languages are spoken. About half the population is Slavonic, and about one quarter Teutonic, while the Magyars of Hungary are, as we have already told you, a branch of the Mongolian group of races. The Emperor of Austria is also King of Hungary.

The kingdom of Italy, like the present German Empire, is of modern origin. After the downfall of the Roman Empire, Italy split up into a great number of states. A considerable part, the Papal States, was under the rule of the Pope; there were the kingdoms of Naples and of Sicily, the grand duchies of Savoy and of Milan, and small republics like those of Venice and Genoa.

The part played by Italy in the Middle Ages in the progress of civilization will never be forgotten. There the revival of learning first made itself felt, and Italy became, in an especial degree, the land of art. In poetry, in painting, in architecture, and in music, she has produced some of the greatest men in the world's history. But while she was as a house divided against itself, Italy, great as she was in art, could not take a place among the Great Powers. However, in the middle of the nineteenth century, a great movement, aided by the patriot Garibaldi and others, began for the purpose of establishing a United Italy. The King of Sardinia became King of Italy in 1861; and in 1870, the Papal States having been taken from the Pope, the Kingdom of Italy included the whole of the peninsula.

### THE MONGOLIAN PEOPLES

THE Mongolian group of peoples gets its name from the Mongols, a race first spoken of in Chinese records as dwelling in the district still called Mongolia, and now forming part of the Chinese Empire. Long ago, however, in the twelfth and succeeding centuries, these Mongols founded, and for a time maintained, a great empire of their own. Their greatest leader was Genghis Khan, one of the most remarkable conquerors the world has produced. His troops, all horsemen, swept in destroying hordes across the whole of Central Asia to the Crimea, and founded an empire that stretched from the Pacific to the Black Sea.





PEOPLES OF THE PACIFIC.

1. A MAN OF FIJI.

2. PATARAGURAI, A MAORI CHIEF, NEW ZEALAND.

3. A MORO, PHILIPPINES.

4. JAVA WOMEN.



Another Mongolian race, the Turks, were pressed westward by the Mongol conquests, and gradually established their rule over Asia Minor. Thence they crossed the Bosphorus into Europe, captured Constantinople in the fifteenth century, founded the state of Turkey in Europe, and for a time threatened to overrun Eastern and Central Europe.

In point of size and population, by far the greatest country peopled by the Mongolian race is the great empire of China, consisting of China proper and Manchuria, with dependencies of Mongolia and Tibet. This vast country has an area of nearly four and a half million square miles and a population of some 400,000,000 people. It is the most populous empire in the world. As is to be expected, this population is much denser in the rich and fertile valleys of the great rivers of China proper than in the comparatively poorly watered and sterile upland plains of the interior table-lands. In these rich river-valleys a civilization grew up long ages ago. For many centuries, during which our ancestors were barbarians, the Chinese were a civilized people. Indeed, the Chinese themselves claim to carry back their history to a period nearly three thousand years before the birth of Christ. It has certainly been an empire for more than two thousand years.

How is it, then, that China has been outstripped in civilization by the comparatively new peoples of Western Europe? The answer is probably to be found partly in the geographical features of their country, and partly in the character of the Mongolian race. Their rich plains and hill-slopes, cultivated with patient care and industry, were capable of supplying all their needs. Thus there was little inducement to intercourse with other lands. Moreover, intercourse was made difficult, even if it were desired, by the high mountain chains and the barren table-lands and deserts which bound the country in so many directions. The passive character of the people and their exaggerated ancestor-worship, which made it almost impious in their view to wish to advance beyond the point which their forefathers had reached, must also be taken into account. Moreover, their system of education, based upon the ancient writings, was not likely to make for progress.

It has been claimed that many great inventions of modern Europe and America were discovered in China long ago. It is at any rate certain that paper was made in that country in our first century, and printing by means of wooden blocks established not very long afterward.

For a very long period after China was first visited by Europeans, the Chinese looked upon them with disfavor, and their government did all that it could to discourage trade with the Western nations. Indeed, the right to trade in certain ports was only obtained from China by war. There are, however, many signs that the influence of Western civilization is beginning to be felt. This movement may not unlikely be aided by the marvelous success with which the Japanese have adopted some of the methods of Western Europe. In a very few years these wonderful people have developed their manufactures, trained and armed an army and navy, and have shown themselves capable of successfully combating one of the Great Powers of Europe—the gigantic country of Russia. This is the more extraordinary because Japan had for a very long time its ancient stationary civilization like the Chinese, and until after the middle of the nineteenth century the Japanese did all they could to keep foreigners out of their country.

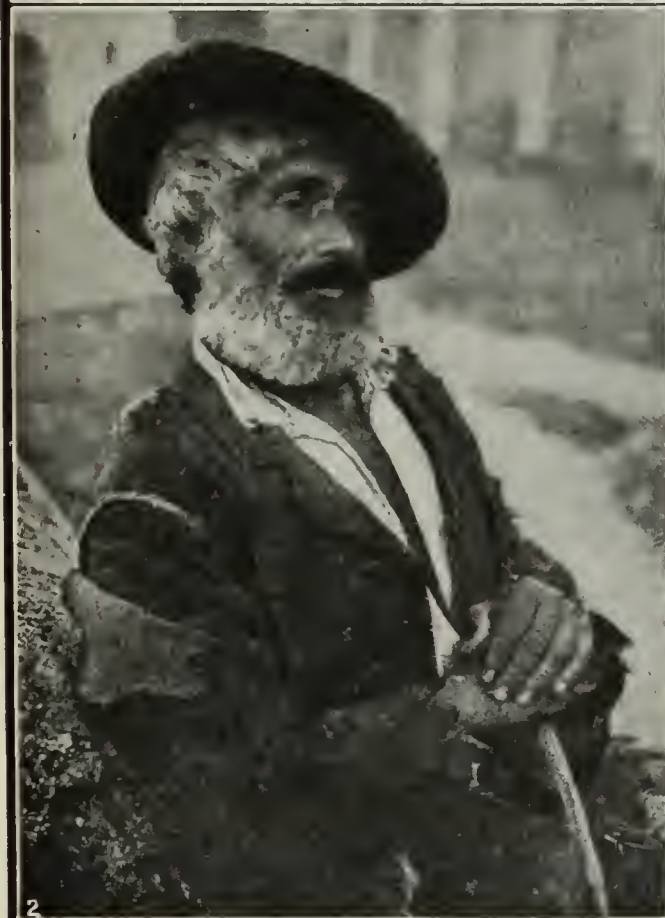
In 1868 a civil war in Japan established the Mikado or Emperor in his power, and a change unexampled in history began. Railways were constructed, their engineers trained by Europeans, and cotton factories built. French, and later German, officers organized an army, and British sailors instructed Japanese seamen and formed a navy after the British model. Thus European civilization was grafted upon the ancient Japanese culture, and for the first time a yellow race took its place among the Great Powers of the world.

The peninsula of Korea, the subject of strife between China and Japan, and later between Japan and Russia, is inhabited by Mongolian people having a civilization resembling the Chinese. In 1910 Korea was made a part of the Japanese Empire.

In the main, the peoples of Indo-China, the Burmese and Siamese, are Mongolic. In the extreme south of the Malay Peninsula, and in some of the islands of the East Indies, the people, though mainly Mongolic, appear to have a considerable admixture of Aryan blood. They vary much in the stage of civilization they have reached, some being peaceful tillers of the soil, while others are but little, if at all, removed from cannibalism. The people of Madagascar are, at any rate largely, of Malay blood.

The brown Polynesians of the Pacific islands are frequently of considerable physical beauty, and generally of peaceful and gay dispositions, though by no means lacking in courage. Unfortunately they are one of the races that de-





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# THE GYPSIES, OR ROMANY.

1. GYPSY PASTIMES, NEAR GRANADA, SPAIN.
2. A GYPSY OF GRANADA.
3. A GYPSY OF ALSACE.

crease in numbers as they come into contact with whites.

The American Indians appear to be another of these dying races. Originally spread in many tribes over the entire length and breadth of North and South America, their number is now very much reduced. Many tribes have been almost swept away by diseases such as measles and smallpox introduced among them. Still worse probably have been the ravages wrought by strong drink, or "fire-water" as the Indians themselves call it, and, at times, by the treachery and greed of the whites who, in deceitful bargaining, and in cruel warfare, almost matching their own, have robbed the red men of their lands and slaughtered them without mercy.

As a race the American Indians have never reached any considerable level of civilization, nor do the majority even now take kindly to that of the whites. In two districts, however, Peru and Mexico, they had developed a fair level of civilization before the European colonization of America. In both these places, however, the Indian civilization and government were destroyed with horrible cruelty by the Spanish conquerors.

### THE ETHIOPIAN PEOPLES

THE home of the typical Ethiopian peoples, the negroes, is the continent of Africa south of the Sahara. From the great number of black peoples varying largely from one another who dwell in those parts of Africa, it is usual to take certain of the tribes inhabiting the western and central Soudan as representing the truest type of the negro. Among these may be mentioned the Ashantis and the Kru of Upper Guinea, and the Hausas of the central Soudan.

Other black races of Africa, approaching more or less closely to the typical negro, are sometimes

called the negroid peoples. Of these the most important is the great Bantu family spread over the larger part of the central and southern tableland. The Bantus, as a rule, are tall and well built, strong, and capable of much endurance. Among them are included the warlike races of South Africa: the Zulus, the Basutos, the Bechuanas, and the Matabele.

The Hottentots of the southwest of Africa are also considered to be a negroid people, though differing very widely from the ordinary negro type.

Scattered about among the stronger peoples, and generally dwelling in the least accessible and least desirable parts of the continent, are a number of tribes of pygmy people sometimes classed together as Negritos. They are some of the lowest and most animal-like members of the human family. Among them are the Bushmen of the Kalahari desert and the race of hairy dwarfs, not much above four feet in height, who, with their poisoned arrows, caused Stanley much trouble in his march through the Aruwini forest.

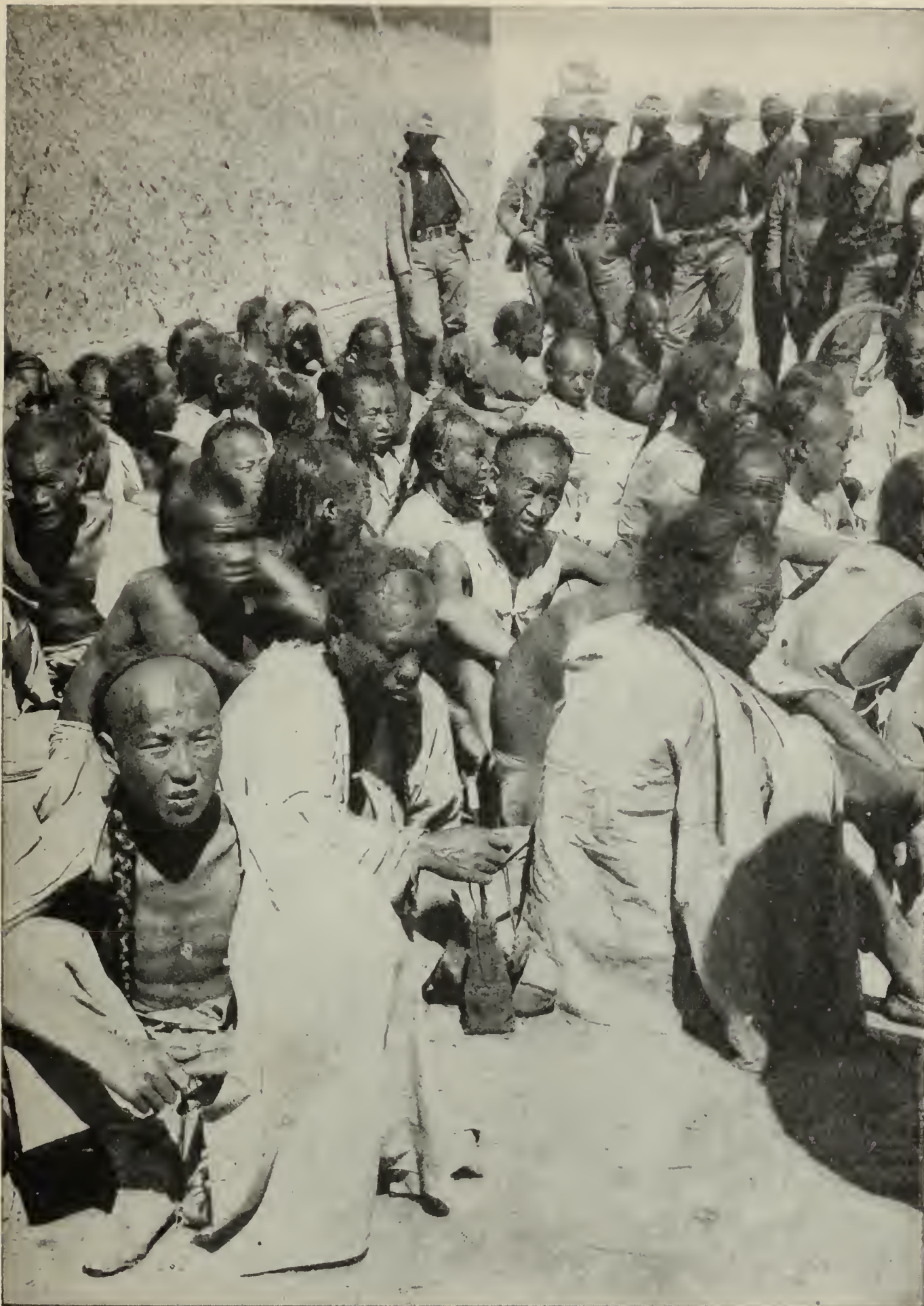
Very low, too, in the scale of civilization are the negroid peoples of the Oceanic or eastern division of the Ethiopic group. Such are the cannibalistic tribes of New Guinea, the islanders of Melanesia, and the aborigines of Australia. These Australian natives furnish another example of a dying race. The Tasmanians are already extinct.

Very large numbers of negroes live, as you know, on the continent and islands of America, especially in the Southern United States, in the West Indies, and in the tropical parts of South America. These are, of course, the descendants of negroes imported from Africa as slaves.

The Ethiopic race differs from both the Caucasian and the Mongolic in the fact that it has never evolved a civilization of its own.







A GROUP OF CHINESE.

THIS PICTURE WAS TAKEN AT THE TIME OF THE BOXER TROUBLES IN CHINA IN 1900.



# STORIES FROM AMERICAN HISTORY

## PART II

### HOW A WOMAN SAVED AN ARMY

BY H. A. OGDEN

It was in the winter of 1777-78, during the occupation of Philadelphia by the British troops, that a patriot woman inside of the enemy's lines performed an act of great service to her country. Not far away, at Whitemarsh, General Washington's army was encamped. It had recently suffered defeat in the battles of Brandywine and Germantown, and the outlook was most discouraging. In Philadelphia the British soldiers, commanded by General Howe, were quartered in comfortable barracks, while their officers had selected the most

commodious and elegant houses in which to enjoy the winter. In one of these houses lived a Quaker gentleman named Darrah, his wife Lydia, and their younger children; their oldest son was an officer in the patriot army. With them General Howe's adjutant-general took up his quarters, and secured a back room in which private councils could be held.

Just before one of these councils, in the early part of December, Lydia Darrah was told to retire early with her family, as the British officers would require the room at seven o'clock,



THE BRITISH OFFICERS IN COUNCIL.



LYDIA DARRAH OVERHEARS THE PLAN.



and would remain late. The adjutant-general added that the officers would send for her to let them out and to extinguish the fire and candles. the summons had been several times repeated.



“‘WE MARCHED BACK LIKE A PARCEL OF FOOLS!’ SAID THE ADJUTANT-GENERAL.”

Now, as the officer was so particular, Lydia suspected that some expedition against the patriot army was to be arranged.

She sent all the family to bed, and, taking off her shoes, crept softly back and listened at the door. By this piece of eavesdropping, which the zealous woman no doubt felt was entirely justified as a war expedient, she learned it was decided to issue an order that all the British troops should march out, late on the fourth of December, to surprise General Washington and his army.

Having learned this important decision, Mrs. Darrah retired to her room, and, lying down,

feigned to be asleep. When one of the officers knocked at the door, she did not reply until the summons had been several times repeated.

After the departure of the officers she hardly knew what to do, in order to get word of the intended surprise to Washington. She knew it lay in her power to save the lives of thousands of her countrymen. She dared not consult even her husband. She decided to go herself and convey the information. The Darrahs' stock of flour being almost out, and it being customary in those days for people to send or go to the mills themselves, Lydia told her husband that she would go for more. He wanted his wife to send their servant, or to take a companion, but Lydia insisted on going alone.

As the mill was some distance from the city, a pass through the British lines must be obtained; and Lydia's first step was to procure

the document from General Howe. Having secured the pass, she made her way over the snowy roads, and reached the mill. Leaving her flour-bag to be filled, she hurried on in the direction of the American camp, and before long met a party of patriot cavalymen commanded by an officer whom she knew. He inquired where she was going. Mrs. Darrah said she was going to see her son, one of his comrades; at the same time she begged him to dismount and walk with her. Ordering his troops to remain within sight, he did so. She then told her important secret, after his promise not to betray his source of information, lest



her life might be forfeited thereby. Conducting her to a house near at hand, and seeing that she had some refreshment, the American officer galloped off to headquarters, where General Washington was at once informed of the intended attack. The necessary preparations were of course made for receiving and repelling the enemy's "surprise."

Returning home with her flour, Lydia sat up alone, to watch the intended movement of the British. The regular tramp of feet passed the door, then all was silence; nor was her anxiety to know the result at an end until the officers' return, a day or two later. Although she did not dare to ask a question, imagine her alarm, when the adjutant-general told her that he wished to ask her some questions; she felt sure that she either had been betrayed or was suspected. He inquired very particularly whether her husband or any of the children were up on the night they had held their last consultation. Lydia replied: "The family all retired at seven o'clock, as you requested." He then remarked: "I know *you* were asleep; for

I knocked on your door at least three times before you answered me. We are entirely at a

loss to understand who could have given Washington information of our proposed attack, unless these walls could speak. When we arrived near their encampment we found all their cannon in position, and their troops ready for us; and not being prepared for a regular



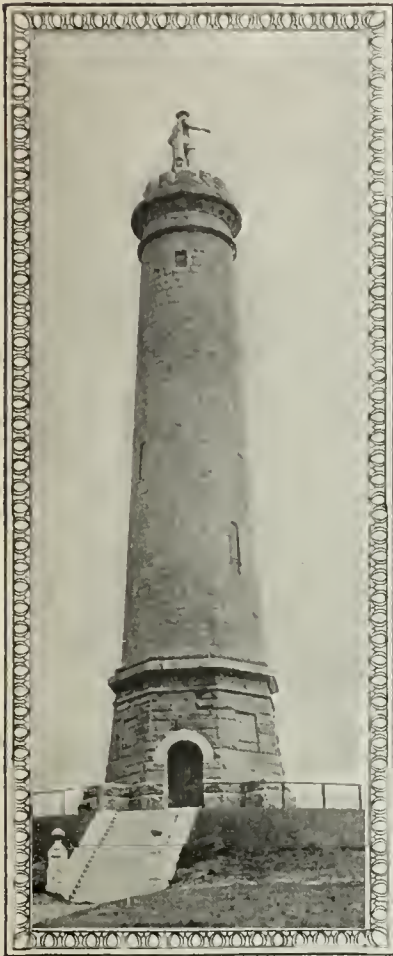
LYDIA DARRAH GIVES WARNING OF THE BRITISH ATTACK.

battle with the Americans, we marched back—like a parcel of fools!"



# A VISIT TO PLYMOUTH ROCK

BY CORNELIA HICKMAN



THE MILES STANDISH MONUMENT  
AT DUXBURY, NEAR PLYMOUTH.

sides by the fishermen's homes, is a large, open square forty yards from the water-front. Here stands Plymouth Rock, the first sight of which gives one a mental shock, for, no doubt, fancy has pictured an immense boulder rising grandly out of the sea; but, instead, the visitor sees only an oblong, irregularly shaped gray sandstone rock twelve feet in length and five feet in width at the widest point and two at the narrowest. Across one part runs a large crack which has been filled with cement, and which gives to Plymouth Rock a highly artificial appearance. The origin of this crack is a bit of unique history, and bears evidence to the early differences that at times divided the inhabitants into two factions.

For a long time there waged spirited and

PLYMOUTH has been called the cradle of New England. It is on the coast, thirty-eight miles south of Boston, and is a thriving and prosperous New England town, with good schools and churches, and town hall, and shops of all kinds, and comfortable homes.

On the flat strip of land that runs for miles up and down the shore of the bay, the diminutive white houses of the fishermen are crowded close together. In the center of the same flat land-strip, flanked on both

bitter wrangling between the opposing parties, and it even settled down upon the much-cherished Plymouth Rock, which one party declared ought to be removed to a more worthy position in the town square, and the other wranglers protested it should not be moved an inch from its position, even though they had to guard it with their pikes and guns.

Finally, the stronger faction drew up their forces around Plymouth Rock, and in attempting to remove it up the hill it split asunder, which seemed a bad omen for those who had attempted such a thing, until an ardent Whig leader flourished his sword, and by an eloquent appeal to the other zealous Whigs convinced them that they should not swerve from their plan of carrying the rock to a place in the town square.

"The portion that first fell to the ground belongs to us," he cried; "and that we will transport with all care and diligence to its proper home."

Twenty yoke of oxen drew the Whig section of Plymouth Rock up the hill, amid the shouts of the throng that pushed forward around the liberty-pole which was to mark the new site. The ceremony of dedicating the rock in its new position was very impressive, and the people stood with bared heads, and in reverent tones chanted their high-pitched psalms in token of thanksgiving.

In the town square this part of Plymouth Rock remained for more than half a century, when a committee of the council resolved to move it back to its original position, and join it, as best they could, to the other half. Accordingly, in 1834, on the morning of the Fourth of July, the Plymouth Rock had been reunited in all seriousness to its long-estranged portion, and the union made complete by a mixture of cement and mortar.

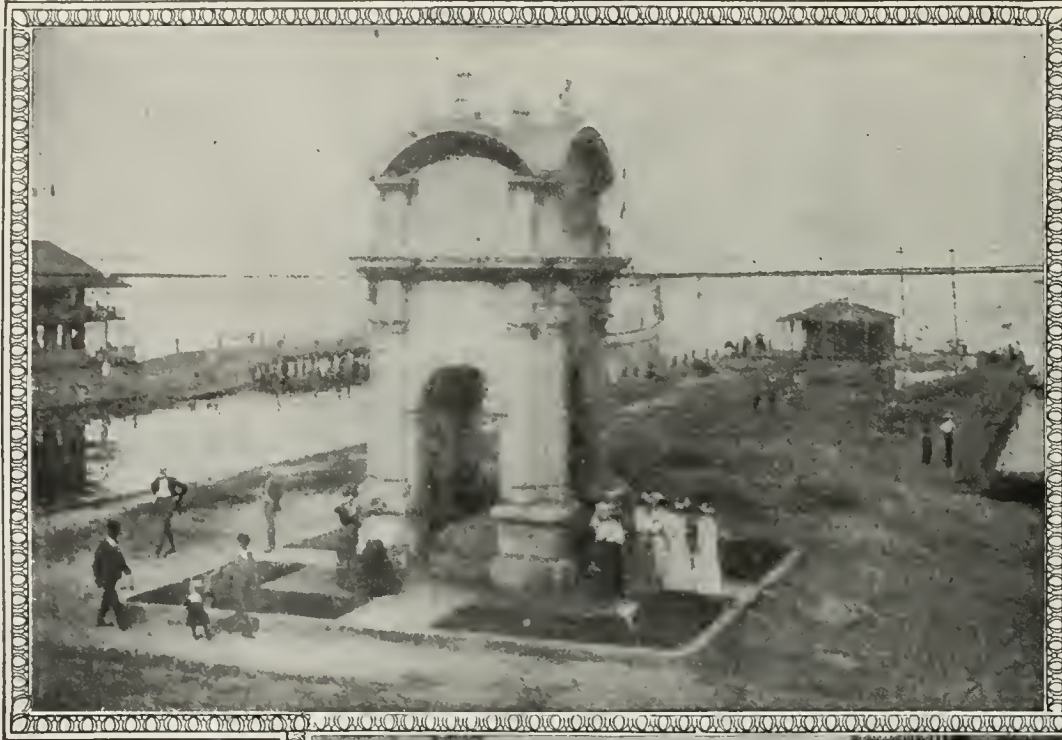
To-day four granite columns support a canopy of granite that offers Plymouth Rock an indifferent protection against the rain and the

sun, and serves to keep back, in some measure, the thousands of sight-seers that come to Plymouth with only one object in view, namely, to press up around the iron bars, and to gaze

"Why, of course it is Plymouth Rock! What else could it be?" answers the man to whom the question is addressed; but, nevertheless, looking a trifle skeptical himself as he regards it. "It's not much

to look at; but it's Plymouth Rock, just the same," he says in decisive tones.

From the wharf, with its fishing-boats and sail-boats ranged around its sides, one gets but an imperfect view of Plymouth Harbor and the sea beyond. Just climb the hill back of the fishermen's cot-



CANOPY OVER  
PLYMOUTH ROCK.

through them at the revered rock, on which they see the single inscription, cut in the middle of its face in long, plain figures: "1620."

The rock is surrounded by a high iron railing composed of alternate boat-hooks and harpoons, and inscribed with the illustrious names of the forty men who drew up the Pilgrims' compact on board the "Mayflower" that November day, as they sighted the coast that henceforth was to be their home.

"And so this is Plymouth Rock?" some one asks doubtfully. "Are you sure?"



PLYMOUTH ROCK.

tages, on which the main portion of the town is built, and pass on to the summit of "Burying Hill," and from this high point the eye can take in the long, narrow beach; the bald



crown of "Captain's Hill" on the left; the "Gurnet" lights upon their rocky promontory that runs out into the sea where the steamers

the "Mayflower" who had perished from cold and hunger. It was there on Captain's Hill that Miles Standish built him a substantial log-

house, in the vain hope that the Puritan Priscilla would one day become its mistress.

Far away to the north, beyond those distant hills yellow with fields of stubble, is Marshfield and the grave of Daniel Webster.

Viewed from the summit of Burying Hill, the scene is beautiful and restful, and one never to be forgotten.

Burying Hill might elaim your attention for a week, with its ancient tombstones and their ingenu-



PLYMOUTH CEMETERY ON THE SITE OF THE WATCH-HOUSE.

come and go; and the plaeid blue waters of the bay. On the outer edge of the bay lies an island with an oval outline that slopes gradually down to the water in green curves, its round surface dotted here and there with clumps of cedars and stunted pines.

Duxbury Beach, scarcely twenty rods in width, stretches from the mainland for miles to the southward, interposing its narrow barrier of drifting sand between the stormy Atlantic and the quiet Plymouth Harbor lit up by the October sun.

"Saquish Head" guards the inlet, that grows wider and wider, and the lonely, wind-swept cliff is the homestead of a score of hardy fishermen whose cabins look as if they were about ready to topple into the sea.

On one high point rises the statue of John Alden; and, at the foot of Captain's Hill, you see the smoothed-over sward where were buried John Carver and his gentle wife, who could not survive her husband's loss, and the bones of fifty of the unfortunate passengers of

ous inscriptions, that are so quaintly and, oftentimes, humorously worded that they provoke a smile in spite of yourself. It is the old Plymouth burying-ground, and occupies one of the highest cliffs that overlook the bay.

A road leads down from Burying Hill through the old part of the town, along the narrow and crooked streets, with their square-roofed houses and queer-looking stores and warehouses, and rope-walks that run into byways, up and down hill, and finally emerge upon the ruinous old wharf with its rotting piles projecting far out into the harbor.

Along Court street one goes, gazing at the houses on each side of the way, with seanty little front door-yards full of old-fashioned flower-beds; at the square turrets of the more pretentious dwellings; at the steeples and eupolas of the churches on the different hills; at the shops, big and small, with green blinds and dingy white fronts, until he comes to the town hall, on the right-hand side of the street. The hall is of rough granite, with a wooden veranda



whose colonnades are Doric painted in imitation of granite. This building is "Pilgrims' Hall," and is seventy feet long and forty feet wide. The corner-stone was laid on the first of September, 1824, and the hall is divided into several rooms that are filled with interesting memorials and relics of the Pilgrims, and the "Mayflower," and the early colonial days.

The principal apartment contains a large painting of the "Landing of the Pilgrims," by Henry Sargent. In the recesses of the windows are two old walnut chairs that came over in the "Mayflower"; the larger one belonged to Governor Carver, and the smaller one to William Brewster.

In a large glass case in this room there are many interesting relics, among which are the sword of Miles Standish; the clumsy-looking gun whose bullet killed the brave King Philip; a small iron pot and a dish that were brought over in the "Mayflower"; John Alden's Bible; some wearing apparel that was the property of Alice Bradford; watches, swords, seal-rings, flint-locks, stocks, and gauntlets that once belonged to prominent citizens of the colony.

In a frame on the wall in one room is a faded sampler worked by the dainty fingers of Lorea Standish. There is a deed signed by Miles Standish, and another bearing the signature of John Alden.

Here is a bond of Peregrine White, the first native Yankee, as he was the first child born in New England.

In an adjoining room is a portion of the library belonging to the Pilgrim Society. Here are the Indian Bible translated by John Eliot, "the Apostle to the Indians," and some inter-

esting books and manuscripts that were prized by the governors of Plymouth, for books were rare in those days. In the basement one sees some very thick boards, that might have formed a part of the hull of a small vessel, raised upon a platform. This is said to be a fragment of the "Mayflower."

In this big underground room the Pilgrim Society of Plymouth has given many a dinner in commemoration of "Forefathers' Day," as December the twenty-second is styled.

Passing on from Pilgrims' Hall down the main street, one sees that the houses are generally built close upon the sidewalk, and that the lower stories are used as shops and stores.

Leyden street is the oldest street in Ply-



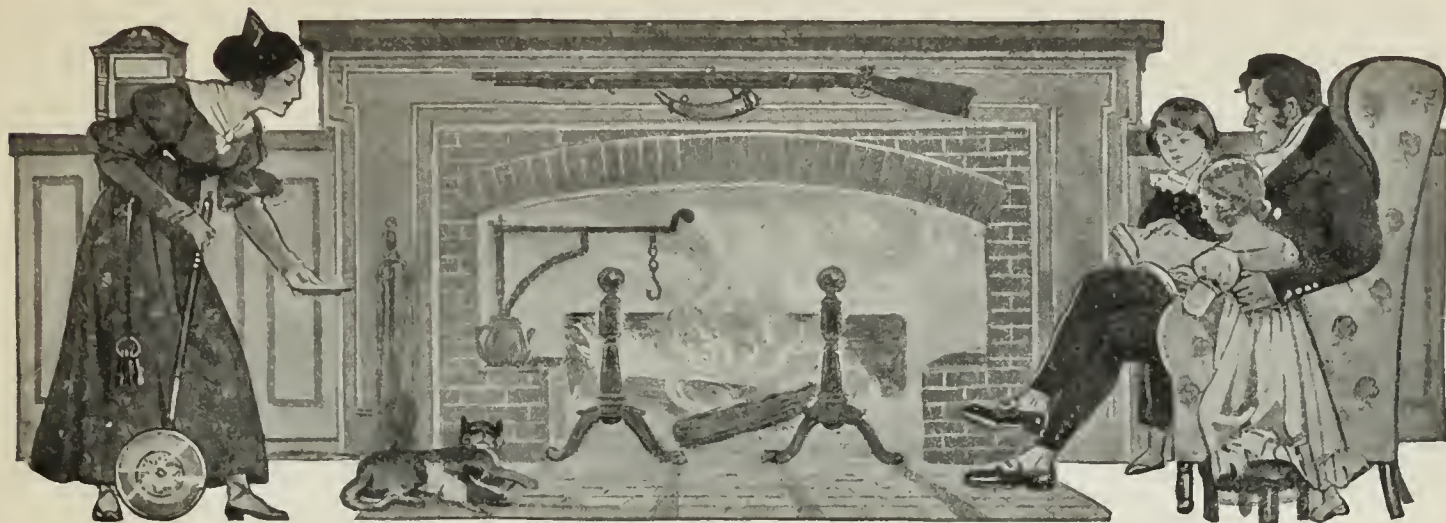
THE HARLOW HOUSE, BUILT FROM TIMBER FROM THE OLD FORT.

mouth. Lots were laid out upon it within a week after the landing, and wooden gates were built at the ends of the street, and a stockade raised against a sudden attack from the Indians.

On Plymouth Hill stands the imposing statue to the Pilgrims. Its base is granite and supports a seated figure at each of the four corners, with eyes searching the surrounding country, while a woman's figure crowns the top. On the pedestal is inscribed the name of every man, woman, and child that came over in the "Mayflower."



*"The world has changed more in the last 100 years than in any 1000 years that have gone before."*



## *Thanksgiving in 1810*

A HUNDRED years back may seem a long while ago, but when you remember that there are men living to-day whose fathers saw General Washington, a century does not seem so long a time after all. And up to the time of Washington a hundred years did not mean very much to the human race. The world moved very slowly. When Washington died, in 1799, people were using the same sort of appliances and doing the same things in the same way that they did in 1699 and even in 1599. In former times, if a man could have returned to earth at the end of a hundred years, he would not have been very much surprised at any of the changes that had taken place during his absence. But if Washington or Franklin, or even Thomas Jefferson, who died less than a century ago, were to come back to earth now, he would not know where he was. *The world has changed more in the last one hundred years than in any thousand years that have gone before.*

To get some idea of the wonderful changes that have taken place, let us go back to Thanksgiving Day in 1810 and note how many, many things our great-grandparents did not have which we have to-day. It will not only astonish us, but it will also make us realize how much we have to be thankful for.

In the first place, there was no Thanksgiving Day in 1810, except in New England. It was only a little over forty years ago that the people all over the United States began to celebrate the day. Before that, if one did not live in Boston or very close to it he probably would never have eaten a Thanksgiving dinner. But even those who were fortunate enough to live in New England did not have anything like the variety of good things for dinner that we have to-day. Of

course they had turkey and pumpkin-pie and onions and cranberry sauce and potatoes; but they did not have tomatoes or corn or peas or string-beans or beets or asparagus or any of the other canned vegetables that we are accustomed to eating during the winter months. There were no canned goods of any kind. There were no tin cans. Neither were there any cars to bring fresh fruits and vegetables—like strawberries and tomatoes and lettuce—from the South and from California. In fact, there were then no such places in the United States as Florida and Texas and California. They were all of them waste places or foreign lands. They belonged to England and Spain and France and Mexico.

Oranges, bananas, pineapples, grape-fruit, olives, Malaga grapes, and other tropical fruits which are so familiar to all of us, were never seen in the markets in 1810. Boys and girls of that day only heard about them from travelers or read of them in books.

Dinners were cooked in fireplaces. There were no ranges. There were no gas-stoves; no oil-stoves; no coal-stoves; no cook-stoves of any kind. Housewives had no baking-powder, no yeast cakes, no self-rising flour, no granulated sugar, no flavoring extracts, no ground spices, no cocoa, no potted meats, no catsup, no prepared breakfast foods, no soda-crackers, no macaroni. All the coffee had to be roasted and ground at home. Housekeepers then had very few of the conveniences that they have to-day. They had no running water in the houses, or stationary wash-tubs or clothes-wringers or washing-machines or wire clothes-lines. Neither had they refrigerators or ice-cream freezers or egg-beaters or waffle-irons or apple-parers or lemon-squeezers or flat-irons or meat-grinders or carpet-sweepers





"HOUSEKEEPERS THEN HAD VERY FEW OF THE CONVENIENCES THAT THEY HAVE TO-DAY."

or ammonia or borax or gasoline or moth-balls or fly-paper or fly-screens. And they had no matches, and they had no electric lights or gas-light, and no kerosene.

There were no sewing-machines in 1810. All clothes were made by hand. There were no ready-made things of any kind; not even shoes or hats. Nearly every family spun its own wool and flax and made its own thread and yarn and cloth. The clothes for the boys and girls and the men and women were made at home. So, also, were the carpets, the candles, the soap, the mattresses, and the chairs and tables. There were no furniture-factories; no ready-made desks or bookcases or bedsteads or anything else. Such things as were not made at home were made to order by the shoemaker or the hatter or the tailor or the cabinet-maker. Clothing-stores, shoe-stores, hat-stores, furniture-stores, were unheard of.

In 1810 nobody wore rubbers. That was because there were no rubbers. There were no rubber goods of any kind—overshoes, waterproofs, rain-coats, rubber balls, pencil erasers, hot-water bags, or anything of that sort. There was no garden-hose; no fire-hose. There were no water-mains; there were no fire-engines. When a house caught

fire, men put it out, if they could, by throwing buckets of water on the flames.

Fireplaces were the only means of keeping a house warm. There were no furnaces; no coal-stoves. Here and there a wealthy family owned a wood-burning stove, but that was a rare luxury. Steam heating and hot-water heating were undreamed of. So, also, were kitchen ranges and hot-water boilers. There were no bath-rooms; there was no plumbing, and the towns had no sewers. And not only had they no sewers, but they also had no street-cars. Even horse-cars were unknown. All city travel was done on foot or by means of horses and carriages. And if any one ventured out at night he carried his own light with him—a lantern with a candle in it; for there were no street-lamps. Electricity and gas and coal-oil had not yet come into use. The moon was the best light a town could have at night.

Of course there were no airships or automobiles or motor-cycles in 1810. Neither were there any bicycles, nor any trolley-cars, and there were n't even any railroads. The locomotive had not yet been invented, and the steamboat was being tried for the first time as an experiment.



"NO RAILROADS" AND "NO AUTOMOBILES."





"NO TELEGRAPH" AND "NO TELEPHONE."

All travel was done on horseback or by stage-coach, and those who crossed the ocean did it as Columbus did—in a sailing-vessel. It was a three days' journey from Philadelphia to Washington. Now you can make the trip in three hours. It took nearly a week for a letter to go from New York to Boston—as long a time as it now requires to send a letter to San Francisco or to London, and the cost was six times as great. There were no postage-stamps. The person who received a letter paid for it in cash according to the distance it had come. And there were no envelopes and no letter-boxes. Letters were simply folded and the corners held together with sealing-wax, and the address was written on the outside of the letter.

As there were no railroads, news traveled only as fast as a horse could run or a ship could sail. There were no wires to carry messages, for there was no telegraph and there was no telephone. Consequently there were not many newspapers, and such as there were did not have much news to print. Most of them were issued only once a week, and such news of the world as they contained was from several days to six months old. All printing was done by hand on wooden presses.

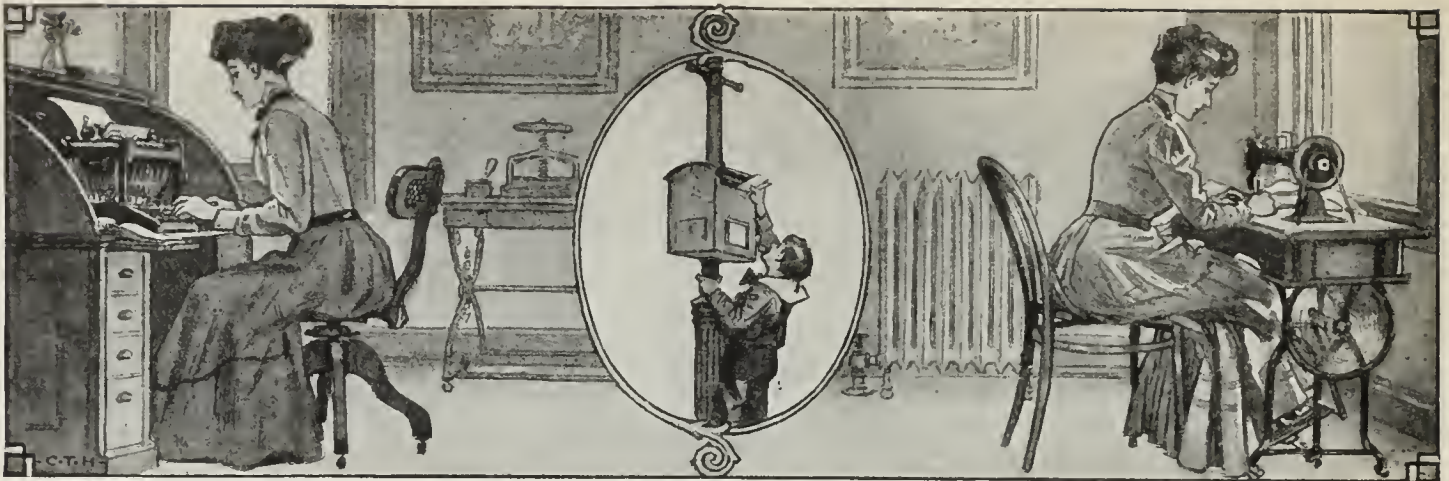
The paper was made from rags. All the writing was done with quill pens—the bony end of a feather plucked from a goose. There were no steel pens, no gold pens, no fountain pens, no manufactured lead-pencils, no blotters, no typewriters. Pictures, in books, of persons or places were all made from sketches drawn by hand and engraved on wood. There were no photographs; no cameras; no kodaks. There was no such word as *photograph*. Those who wanted portraits of themselves were obliged to hire an artist to paint their pictures.

In 1810 there were scarcely any amusements and recreations such as we enjoy to-day. There were very few theaters, and these were to be found only in the larger cities. There were no circuses, no vaudeville, no matinées, no moving pictures, no skating-rinks, no phonographs, no summer and winter resorts, no excursions, no merry-go-rounds, no roller coasters, no Luna Parks, no Chautauquas, no pleasure trips to California or to Europe during vacation, no soda-water, no ice-cream, no chewing-gum, no crackers, and no department stores. And there was no base-ball, for the game had not yet been invented; and there was no foot-ball, and there was no cro-



"NO OCEAN LINERS" AND "NO MOTOR-BOATS."





"NO TYPE-WRITERS."

"NO LETTER-BOXES."

"NO SEWING-MACHINES."

quet, and there was no golf, and there was no lawn-tennis. There were no public libraries. Books were few and expensive. The Waverley Novels had not yet been written; neither had the Leatherstocking Tales. There was no unabridged American dictionary. There were no novels by Thackeray or Dickens or Bulwer or Wilkie Collins or George Eliot or Charles Reade. Hawthorne, Emerson, Whittier, Longfellow, Holmes, Poe, Hood, Tennyson, Darwin, Spencer—not one of these great men had yet written a single line; some of them were not yet born.

Our fathers of 1810 did not know there was a planet Neptune. They did not know there was such a metal as aluminium. They did not know there was gold in California. They did not know that the country west of the Mississippi was fit for anybody to live in; they thought it would remain always a great desert and wilderness, such as it was in their day. They had never heard of quinine or morphine or vaseline or carboic acid or sugar-coated pills, and they knew nothing of ether or chloroform or cocaine or any of the other medicines that are used to-day to deaden pain. There were no such words as *microbes* or *bacteria* or *appendicitis*.

A century ago there were still many powerful tribes of Indians in the western parts of the country, and all of the more remote towns and settlements were in danger of attack from these savages. The farmers and settlers of those days had no breech-loading guns, no repeating rifles, and no revolvers with which to defend themselves—only muzzle-loading muskets and pistols, for which they themselves had to make all the bullets. In fact, they had scarcely anything that the modern farmer considers necessary. There was not in those days any kind of farming machinery—no reapers and binders and harvesters and threshers, or anything of that sort. All work was done by hand and with the simple tools and implements that had been in use for centuries.

If the farmer of 1810 got a newspaper at all, it was a week or a month or perhaps three months old before it reached him. The news of the battle of New Orleans did not get to the farmer of Vermont or of Ohio until it had been six weeks a thing of the past. To have told a man in those days that the time would come when all the people of the United States, in every town and village, could read in a newspaper at supper-time of an earthquake that had occurred in China



"NO MOTOR-CYCLES" AND "NO TROLLEYS."





"NO AËROPLANES."

"NO SKY-SCRAPERS."

that same morning, would have been to ask him to believe a fairy tale.

In fact, not only the humble farmer of that day, but the scientist and philosopher as well, would have found it impossible to believe all the wonderful things that were to take place within the century. If you could have lived then and looked ahead a hundred years and told your friends and neighbors that men would travel by steam and electricity, that they would fly in the air from London to Manchester, or from New York to Philadelphia, that they would talk to one another from Boston to Chicago, that they would flash news across the ocean in the twinkling of an eye, that the great wilderness beyond the Mississippi would be populated with millions of people and contain some of the big cities of the world, that men and women would go across the Atlantic and across the vast continent of America in perfect ease and comfort and in less time than it then took to journey from New York to Washington—if in 1810 you had foretold these marvelous things, your friends and neighbors would have shaken their heads and whispered sadly to one another that you were crazy. If the wonders you related to them were to come to pass during the next *thousand* years, they would perhaps have admitted that there might be truth in

some of your stories; but to say that they would all come true inside of a *hundred* years and that some of the very people to whom you were talking would live to see many of these magical inventions, would have been really too much for any sane person to believe.

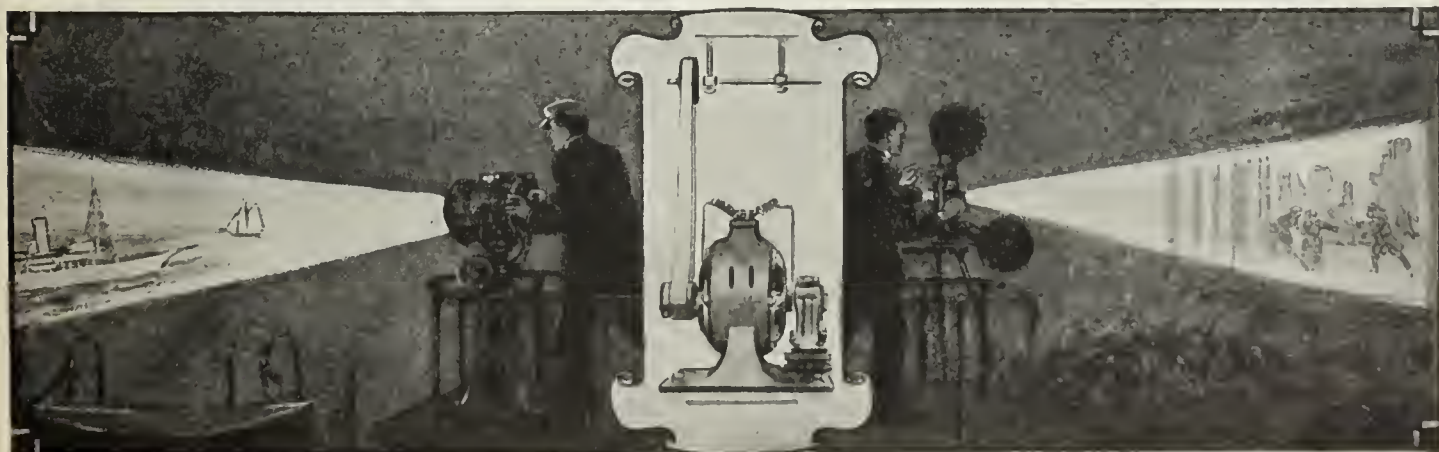
And yet here they all are, and we are living in the midst of them as quietly and unconcernedly as though they were the most commonplace things in the world. In fact, if we were now suddenly obliged to do without all the wonderful things that have come into existence since 1810, we would think the world was very empty and uncomfortable, and that we might as well be living on a desert island.

But we must remember that in 1810 our great-grandparents were perfectly satisfied and contented without any of these things. They thought themselves very well off with what they had, and those who observed Thanksgiving Day made it a special point to offer earnest thanks to Providence for their many blessings.

Surely, therefore, if they could find cause for thanksgiving, how much more thankful ought we to be in the midst of all the blessings of the age in which we live.

And what will it be in 2010? Who can tell?

Clifford Howard.



"NO SEARCH-LIGHTS."

"NO DYNAMOS."

"NO MOVING PICTURES."

# HOW WE BOUGHT LOUISIANA

BY HELEN LOCKWOOD COFFIN

It is a hard matter to tell just how much power a little thing has, because little things have the habit of growing. That was the trouble that France and England and Spain and all the other big nations had with America at first. The thirteen colonies occupied so small and unimportant a strip of land that few people thought they would ever amount to much. How could such insignificance ever bother old England, for instance, big and powerful as she was? To England's great loss she soon learned her error in underestimating the importance or strength of her colonies.

France watched the giant and the pygmy fighting together, and learned several lessons while she was watching. For one thing, she found out that the little American colonies were going to grow, and so she said to herself: "I will be a sort of back-stop to them. These Americans are going to be foolish over this bit of success, and think that just because they have won the Revolution they can do anything they wish to do. They'll think they can spread out all over this country and grow to be as big as England herself; and of course anybody can see that that is impossible. I'll just put up a net along the Mississippi River, and prevent them crossing over it. That will be the only way to keep them within bounds."

And so France held the Mississippi, and from there back to the Rocky Mountains, and whenever the United States citizen desired to go west of the Mississippi, France said: "No, dear child. Stay within your own yard and play, like a good little boy," or something to that effect.

Now the United States citizen did n't like this at all; he had pushed his way with much trouble and expense and hard work through bands of Indians and through forests and over rivers and mountains, into Wisconsin and Illinois, and he wished to go farther. And, besides, he wanted to have the right to sail up and down the Mississippi, and so save himself the trouble of walking over the land and cutting out his own roads as he went. So when France said, "No, dear," and told him to "be a good little boy and not tease," the United States citizen very naturally rebelled.

Thomas Jefferson was President of the United States at that time, and he was a man who hated war of any description. He certainly did not wish to fight with his own countrymen, and he as certainly did not wish to fight with any other

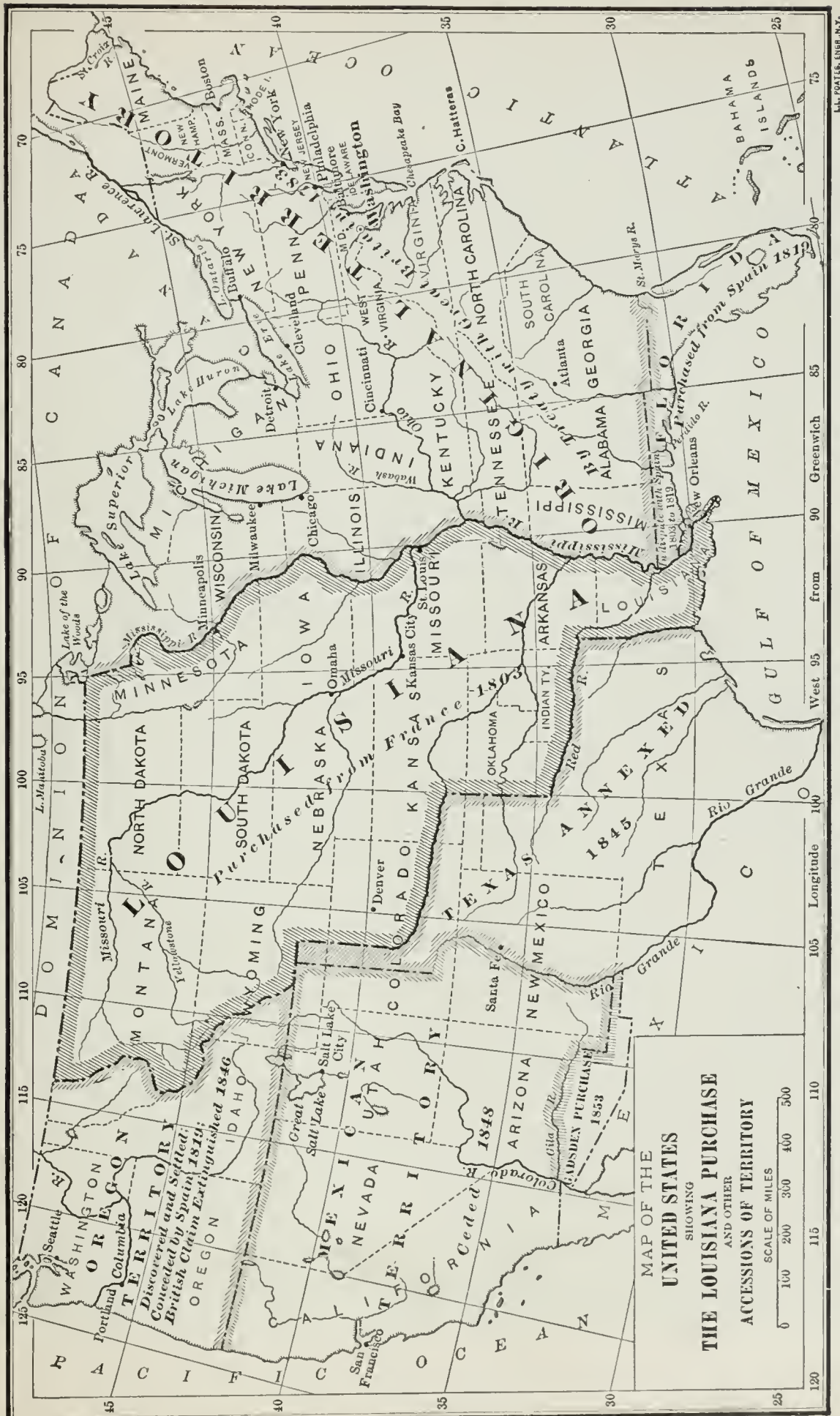
nation, so he searched around for some sort of a compromise. He thought that if America could own even one port on this useful river and had the right of Mississippi navigation, the matter would be settled with satisfaction to all parties. So he sent James Monroe over to Paris to join our minister, Robert R. Livingston, and see if the two of them together could not persuade France to sell them the island of New Orleans, on which was the city of the same name.

Now Napoleon was the ruler of France, and he was dreaming dreams and seeing visions in which France was the most important power in America, because she owned this wonderful Mississippi River and all this "Louisiana" which stretched back from the river to the Rockies. He already held forts along the river, and he was planning to strengthen these and build some new ones. But you know what happens to the plans of mice and men sometimes. Napoleon was depending upon his army to help him out on these plans, but his armies in Santo Domingo were swept away by war and sickness, so that on the day he had set for them to move up into Louisiana not a man was able to go. At the same time Napoleon had on hand another scheme against England, which was even more important than his plans for America, and which demanded men and money. Besides this, he was shrewd enough to know that he could not hold this far-away territory for any long time against England, which had so many more ships than France. He suddenly changed his mind about his American possessions, and nearly sent Monroe and Livingston into a state of collapse by offering to sell them not only New Orleans but also the whole province of Louisiana.

There was no time to write to President Jefferson and ask his advice, and this was before the days of the cable; so Monroe and Livingston took the matter into their own hands, and signed the contract which transferred the Louisiana territory to the United States for \$15,000,000.

Jefferson and Monroe and Livingston builded better than they knew; and to-day that old Louisiana territory is, in natural resources, the wealthiest part of the whole country. Without that territory in our possession we should have none of the following great States: Arkansas, Colorado, the Dakotas, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, Oklahoma, and Wyoming.







# THE CHINESE EMPIRE

## THE OLDEST LIVING NATION OF THE WORLD

THE empire of China covers about one-fourth of Asia, from the Pamirs to the Pacific, and from Siberia to India. The mysterious and wonderful mother country, China proper, lies between its great provinces of Manchuria, Mongolia, and Turkestan, and the vast Pacific Ocean. In size the whole of China is somewhat more than one-fourth larger than the United States, not including Alaska or our island possessions. The face of China proper is crossed by the outlying eastward ranges of mountains running from the great central heights, and by the immense rivers fed by the snows of Tibet, and joined by a network of streams on their long journey to the ocean.

It is estimated that about 400,000,000 people live in China, in its great cities and fertile plains, and on the banks of its waterways.

Among the treasures of some homes in our own country are to be found curiosities brought by sailor friends and relations from this wonderland of the Far East; such as delicate embroideries in shining silks of gorgeous colors, dainty carvings in ivory, and exquisite little bits of fine porcelain or china. And as we have looked closely at the regular stitches in the beautiful fabric, we have seen that there is no untidy "wrong side" in Chinese work. We have wondered at the seemingly impossible puzzle of the ivory balls carved one inside the other, or at the unusual patterns on the thin little cups, and we have tried to picture to ourselves the far country whence the treasures came, and the patient and clever workers who made them. Perhaps all that we have succeeded in calling before our minds is the strange hair-dressing of Chinese men, and the tiny feet of Chinese women, upon a misty background of an unknown land of flowers, with gracefully curved buildings and willow-pattern plate landscapes.

If you have ever studied the map of China, you may have been discouraged by the great number of difficult names upon it; and queer ones indeed

they seem to us, in a language so different from our own. So perhaps it will help us in our quest of a closer view of China and its people to learn a few words of Chinese first, and then, at any rate, we shall understand what some of the names mean, which will give us a much better chance of remembering them, difficult as they are.

In this veritable Land of Mighty Streams, ho, kiang, and kong all mean river; chan, or shan, and ling stand for the mountains between which the rivers run, or through which, in some parts, they force a way between mighty gorges; pe, nan, tong, or tung, and si indicate the points of the compass, north, south, east, and west; hoang, or hwang, is yellow, the imperial color of China; pei, is white; fu, or foo, and king, mean town or court; hai, the sea; chian, heaven; and so on.

Knowing a few words like these, we can easily find the mountains of the east, north, and south: Shan-tung, and the Pe-ling and Nan-ling ranges. The two last shut in the basin of China's greatest and most important river, the Yang-tse-kiang. Over 3000 miles lie between its sources in the heights of Tibet and its mouth in the Pacific Ocean. It makes a magnificent waterway into the heart of the country, wide and deep enough for steamers to ply for a thousand miles through the rich plains of Central China, which the river itself has done much to form, by bringing down fertile mud, as the Nile does along its banks in Egypt.

## RIVER OF CHINA'S SORROW AND THE TERROR OF ITS FLOODS

IN its upper courses, separated from the lower by grand gorges which remind us of the Iron Gate on the Danube, it passes through a rich district of red earth, very thickly peopled. There are lakes in the basin of the Yang-tse-kiang which act as reservoirs in the time of heavy rains, so that its floods are not so disastrous as those on the Hwang-ho, or Yellow River, which drains through Northern China. "China's Sorrow" is one of the names of this river, so dreadful are the floods when it bursts its banks and





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FARM HOUSES, PADDY FIELDS, AND TEA PATCHES.



SCENES IN CHINA.

CHINESE LUMBERMEN AT WORK.



submerges the surrounding country and towns. It is not navigable for long distances, like the Yang-tse-kiang, but on its banks, and in caves in its cliffs, live many of China's millions.

Water is not the only gift the inland provinces send to the mother country; another is sand—yellow sand—that has been constantly blown by the strong winds from Mongolia over parts of Northern China for centuries, till valleys have been filled up by deep beds of it, and the low hills covered with it. So here we have a yellow land with a yellow river, cutting its way through the soft soil, making deep cliffs on each side, and carrying its thick, yellow, sandy waters onward, until they pour by ever-changing mouths into a yellow sea. One of the titles of the great Emperor of China is "Lord of the Yellow Land."

### THE YELLOW SOIL THAT GROWS SEVERAL CROPS A YEAR

THE yellow basin of Northern China is even more fertile than the red basin of Central China, several valuable crops being raised in a year on the loess soil, as it is called.

The Si-kiang, or West River, drains Southern China, rising in the eastern spurs of the Tibetan heights, and making its way through tropical forests, past mountains with treasures of every sort of mineral, and fields with crops that require a hot and moist climate. It is from Southern China principally that so many Chinese emigrate to find work in different parts of the coast of the wide Pacific.

We have often imagined the hum that rises from busy districts and towns in other countries, but from China—from that vast hive of human industry between the solemn, silent, central mountains and the deep, wide sea—it seems as if there must be one continuous and mighty buzz from the whole country, so close are the great cities, so many are the millions of people living and working on the fertile plains.

And this buzz of multitudes is no new thing, as it is in our own country, where great industrial centers are not a century old; neither is it caused, as it is with us, by the whirl and thump of machinery and the noise of the iron horse on his journeys to every corner of the land. Railways and machinery are, comparatively speaking, only just starting in China, the oldest living empire in the world.

### THE LAND OF SAMENESS WHERE CUSTOMS NEVER CHANGE

FOR thousands of years her people have been steadily working, growing in numbers and chang-

ing rulers, suffering the horrors of war and enjoying the blessings of peace, but always busy in the same old ways, making the same things, cultivating the ground on the same methods for centuries, learning the same lessons in the same language, and competing in the same examinations to fill the same government posts.

It is difficult for us who are all for progress and new ideas, and dislike standing still, to understand this steady keeping to old ways. Two thousand years ago our ancestors were still in the wilds of Germany or other European countries—very rough persons, who would find us, their descendants, much changed in language, manners, and dress from themselves.

Now, the written history of China goes back for 4000 years. When Europe was just beginning to make for civilized ways and thoughts, the Chinese nation was very old. But she lost the advantage of her start by standing still, going to sleep, and keeping herself to herself for centuries while the young Western nations were forging ahead, developing governments and education and inventions.

### LONG SLEEP OF THE CHINESE—THEIR HATRED OF NEW IDEAS

THERE are many reasons that account for the long sleep. We will only speak of two that will help us to understand the history of this country, so unlike our own. One is that the Chinese have always greatly revered their parents and ancestors, going so far as to make it a first duty to carry on the work of life in exactly the same way that their forefathers had handed down.

Another reason is that, with few exceptions, the Chinese have stayed at home within the limits of their own country. Then, as they also seldom encouraged foreigners to visit them—indeed, they rigidly kept them out, as a rule—no new ideas of progress and reform, no new knowledge of outside discoveries and inventions, could penetrate the wall of reserve that shut in their heavenly, or celestial, kingdom, so superior, as they believed, to the rest of the earth. And, as time went on, they hated anything new or foreign more and more. But that is changing now.

Some say that ages ago the ancestors of the Chinese came from the Tarim basin and settled on the yellow loess-beds, where it was so easy to grow food.

Anyway, here they lived, advancing in civilization for long, long years, before they spread across the forest-covered mountain ranges which separate the basin of the Yellow River from that of the Yang-tse-kiang. Here, too, the tribes



flourished and grew, and in time united under one ruler; the government became more settled, and all sorts of arts developed, such as the culture of silkworms and the weaving of silk. This has ever been one of China's greatest and most profitable industries.

### CONFUCIUS, THE GREAT CHINESE TEACHER

ABOUT twenty-six centuries ago a great teacher and leader arose, named Confucius, who, during his wandering and hard life, tried to find out how best a man could do his duty to his neighbor, and how best he could learn to govern himself. His teachings have been law to countless millions of his fellow-countrymen, his temples are found all over China, and his books have been the foundation of all learning through the centuries—for Confucius collected and set in order the history of the empire, and inspired a great many books in which his teaching is set forth.

A few hundred years after his death, a prince of China reigned who ordered a great burning of the books of Confucius, and cruelly treated those who tried to keep them. One punishment was to send them to labor on a great wall that he was building, right across the north of China, to keep out the Mongolian horsemen, who were forever descending on his country. Thirty feet high, fifteen feet wide at the top, faced with granite, with many towers of defence, this wonderful wall runs over hill and valley, across sand and river, up the face of the rocks, for 1500 miles along the north border-line of China. This wall still divides China from Mongolia; but it did not keep the Mongols out, any more than the Roman wall across Britain kept out the Picts and Scots.

### THE DESERT WHERE CHINA'S GREAT WALL LIES BURIED

A LATE explorer in Central Asia, Mark A. Stein, made discoveries of importance and interest in connection with this great wall.

For miles and miles, as far as the eye can see in the basin of the Tarim River, stretches sand—nothing but dry, parched sand, that has fought and conquered mankind, overwhelming towns and villages, and sweeping away a flourishing civilization. Of life there is practically no trace. Men have fled before those advancing grains of sand, that they were powerless to check; animals have died. Only one or two plants are able to exist in those desolate wastes. It is a land of sand—and silence.

In these awful wastes, beneath the numerous sand-dunes, Dr. Stein made some interesting discoveries. He found that the Great Wall of China, which hitherto was thought to end at the foot of the Nan-shan Mountains, does not end there at all. Far away to the west in the Tunghwan Desert he found the remains of a great wall, with watch-towers at intervals of two or three miles, that practically joins the wall at the foot of the Nan-shan Mountains.

This, he believes, is the true Great Wall of China, and the wall which we have always looked upon as the great wall is, apparently, much more modern.

There, from those silent and deserted houses and watch-towers, Dr. Stein has excavated that terrible sand, little by little, and his labor has been well repaid. Wooden slabs, with carefully wrought symbols and clay seals, private letters, official documents, frail materials of cotton and silk, and ancient paper, have all been recovered from the sand under which they have lain for many centuries, and these documents, when translated, may give us a history of the long-vanished race which once occupied the land that is now a great sandy waste, where life is insupportable.

We can imagine with what fears these ancient people saw the sand creeping nearer and nearer; how they battled with it valiantly, and tried to keep it from their homes; and how, at length, the sand slowly crept up to the houses and cottages, and into the rooms, driving the inhabitants forth, and gradually covering the entire place in a thick layer. But although the sand has destroyed, it has also preserved, and the relics which have been found will throw much light upon those ancient and deeply interesting times. More than a hundred years before the birth of Christ regular trade was opened up with Central Asia, by China, and caravans began to wind along the routes from one oasis to another across the deserts, through the passes of Mongolia and Turkestan, to Tibet, carrying goods for trade by the infinite labor of men and dumb animals.

### THE GOLDEN AGE OF CHINA

LATER, the empire suffered from many disturbances and divisions, and the struggles among several small rulers to be first and foremost. It was during these centuries, about the times when the Angles and Saxons were seeking their new homes across the North Sea, that the Buddhist religion took hold in China, though it had been introduced from India some centuries before. Temples were built all over the country, to house

the thousands of images that were brought by the priests and monks.

The three centuries after this are considered by the Chinese as one of the most glorious periods in their long history. Books and authors, schools and colleges, examinations and degrees, occupied a great place in public life. About the time when King Alfred was setting scholars laboriously to work with their pens and paint-brushes to copy manuscripts, Chinese records mention the printing of books by wooden blocks. About this time, too, an immense encyclopedia was written. The fame of this learning and of the gorgeous palaces and riches of China was spread to Europe, chiefly by Arab traders, and ever since the romance and mystery of China has attracted the imagination and longing of the West.

### THE DOOR OPENED FOR EUROPE'S FIRST PEEP INTO CHINA

BUT it was not till the thirteenth century that the famous Marco Polo opened the door for Europe to get a passing view of the wonders of the dim and mysterious land of the Far East.

Early in that century the Mongols had gradually been getting more and more power on the borders of Central Asia and in the north of China. When the great leader Genghis Khan, the "Greatest of the Great," flashed over Western Asia and ruled over an empire stretching from the China Sea to Russia, some of the barriers that had hitherto prevented entry into China were swept away. The huge empire was divided at his death among his sons, and a good deal of intercourse followed between China and Persia, Tibet and Mongolia.

It was the grandson of Genghis Khan, Kublai Khan, who welcomed Marco Polo so kindly to China, and sent him on so many missions to the wild provinces on the borders of Tibet and other distant parts of the empire. Deeply interesting is the account of Kublai's reign by Marco Polo, as well as the writings of other travelers who seized the opportunity of exploring the heights of the Pamirs and the Tarim basin; and some even crossed the Hiwang-ho into China itself.

Kublai added Southern China to his dominions, and made his new capital at Peking, the Court of the North. This great soldier proved equally great as a ruler, for he encouraged education and helped China in many ways.

His grandson, Timur, or Tamerlane, was the last of these great Mongol rulers. He gave an order that Confucius should be held in great respect. After his death, rebellions and murders

of emperors, great misgovernment, and other troubles brought the rule of the Mongols to an end. In the fifteenth century the Chinese drove them across the Great Wall to the Altai Mountains, and Mongolia became a province of the empire under the Chinese Ming family, or dynasty, of emperors, which lasted nearly three hundred years. There were troubles at home and abroad during this time, difficulties with the Mongols and the Japanese, and, most important of all, the door which hid the Celestials from the Western "barbarians" began to open just a little. The Portuguese and Spaniards appeared in China in the sixteenth century, and a Chinese fleet sailed as far as the Red Sea.

### A WONDERFUL CHINESE ENCYCLOPEDIA

VERY beautiful porcelain was made during the Ming dynasty, and another large encyclopedia was brought out, which occupied many editors and assistants for several years. It is said that this is the largest encyclopedia in the world. It runs to many thousands of volumes, and a copy of the first edition is now to be seen in the British Museum in the table cases in the King's Library. The Portuguese traders made but little impression on China, but the Jesuit missionaries managed to make their way inland in China to preach the Christian religion.

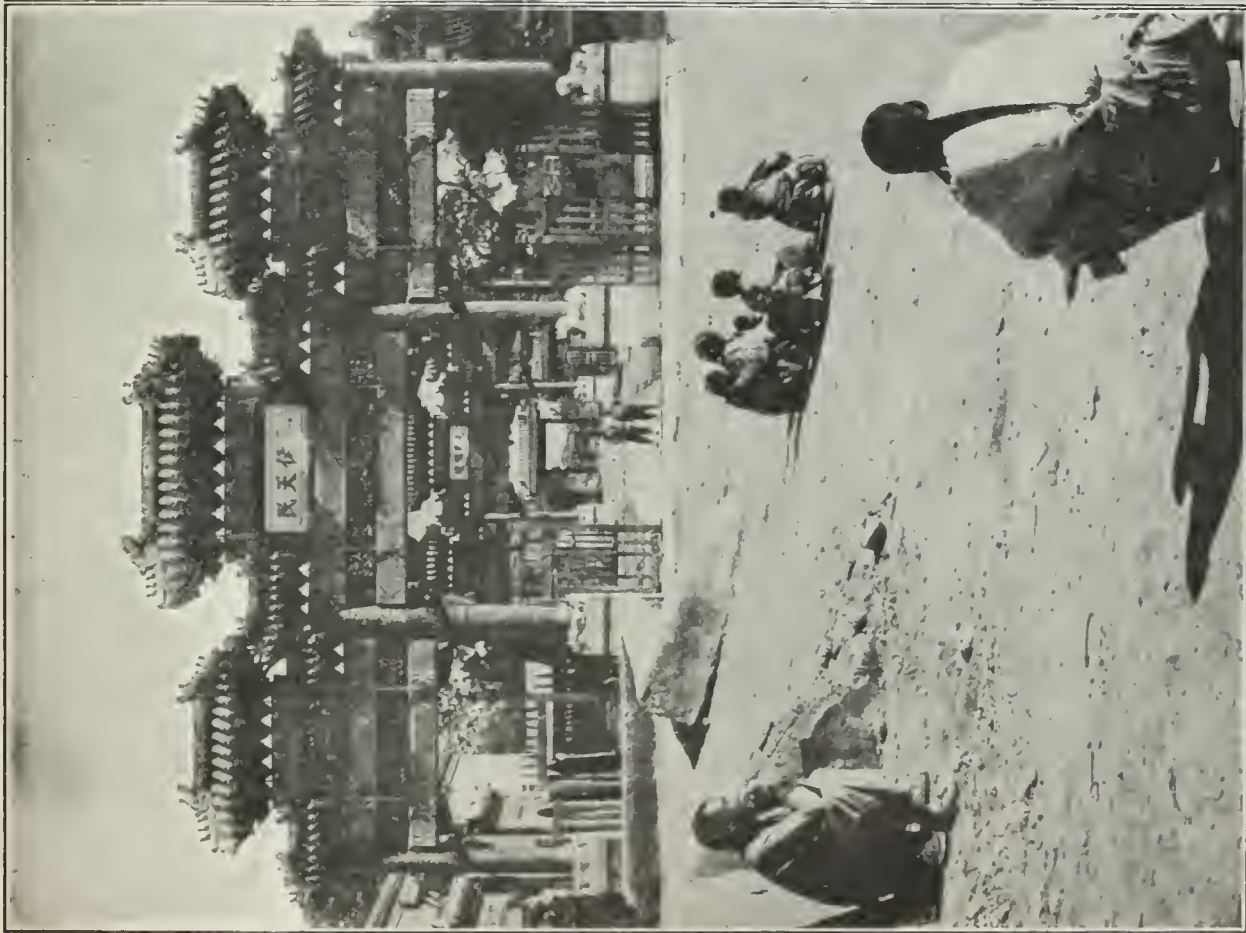
There are many splendid remains of the great Ming dynasty in China, especially near Peking. Among them is a long avenue of large stone animals in various postures, leading to the wonderful tombs of the emperors. There are also many magnificent memorial archways.

As the Ming dynasty was nearing its end, the Manchus, who were descendants of old Mongolian enemies of China, settled in Manchuria, about the river Amur, and made increasingly successful attacks on the empire till, in 1616, the Manchu line of rulers found themselves firmly seated on the throne, beyond the wall that was built centuries before to keep out invaders. China was ruled by emperors of the Manchu dynasty till 1912, when it became a republic.

### STRUGGLE OF THE NATIONS OF EUROPE TO SET FOOT IN CHINA

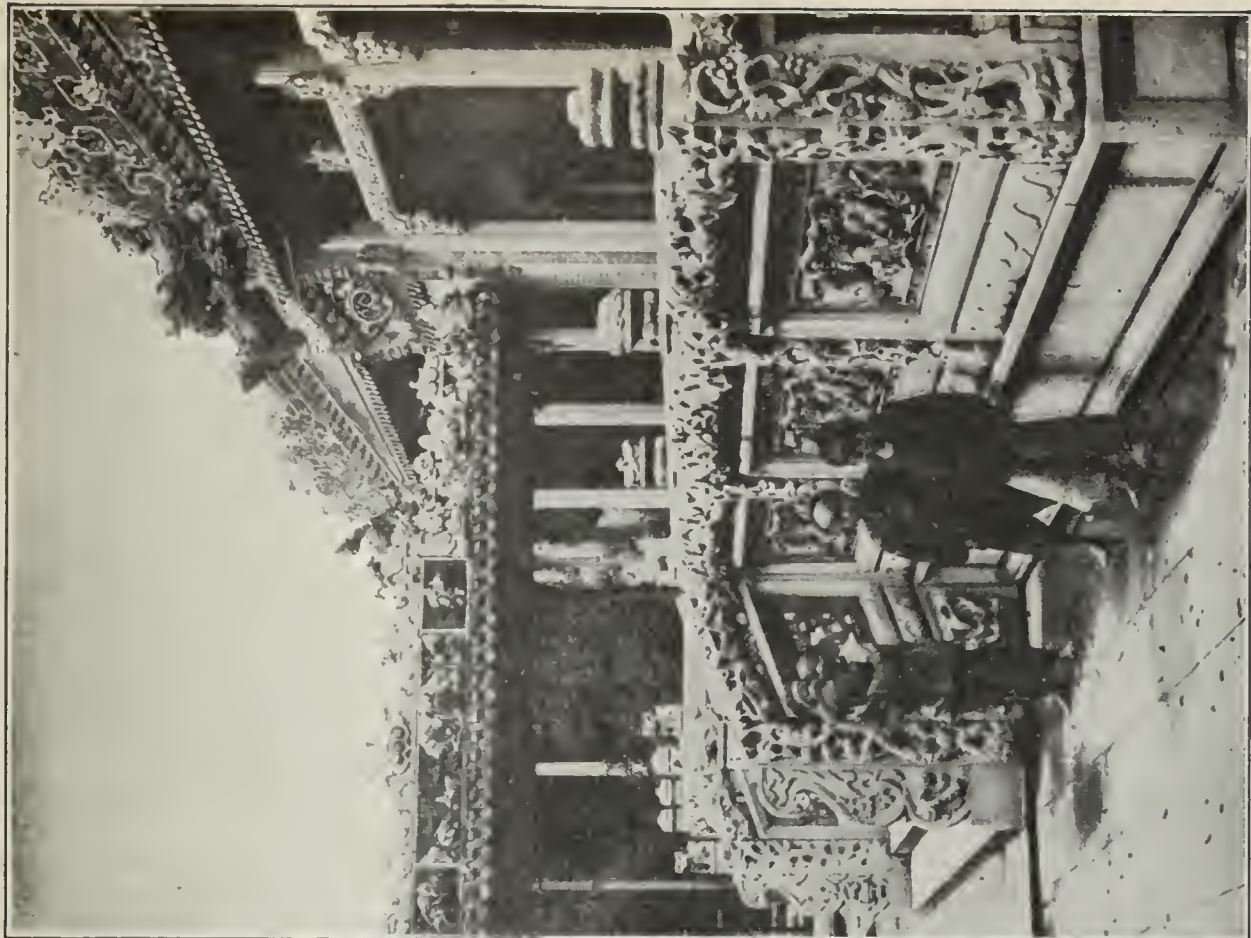
DURING the past century the Western Powers have been anxious to gain footholds in this rich and ancient empire. The chief objects for which these footholds were desired were to force the Christian religion and Western ideas upon a country which detested them, and to open up





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TYPICAL GATEWAY IN PEKIN.



OLD CHINESE ARCHITECTURE.

ANCESTRAL HALL OF THE CHUN FAMILY.



trade with people who had so much to sell, and whose great numbers mean great buying power.

Little by little China has been forced to give way, and she has had to admit, one by one, her assailants into some part of her dominions. Portuguese, Dutch, Germans, Russians, and British for years carried on the struggle, and after wars and sieges and stormings, and endless discussion of a more peaceful nature, the various foreign nations at last have gained the right of entry into the land so long closed to them.

It was in 1842 that, by the Treaty of Nanking, certain ports were opened to foreign trading ships, and, as time went on, more and more concessions had to be given to the foreigners; concessions and money were often exacted as a punishment for killing missionaries or other representatives and burning their property. Shortly after the settlement of Nanking, a terrible rebellion devastated a large part of China for fifteen years. In 1864 the British were able to help the government to restore order. In the center of Trafalgar Square, London, stands a statue of that fine soldier and man of action General Gordon, often spoken of as "Chinese" Gordon, from the part he took in putting down this Taiping rebellion, as it was called.

His campaign in the delta of the Yang-tse-kiang, among the streams and canals and lakes, all broad and navigable channels, was most carefully planned, and was full of exciting events. In one action an armed steamer, with a crew of forty men, got the better of a force of many thousand rebels. He drilled the Chinese forces, urged on men less brave and energetic than himself, and showed the Chinese not only how to make war, but how to end it.

These first years of China's awakening after the long, numbing sleep of centuries have indeed been full of trouble and pain. There have been almost incessant wars with the neighbors who could no longer be kept out, with Russia, France, Germany, Japan, and during these wars China has learned by sad experience that her old ways of warfare, though picturesque in their setting, and almost sacred from long custom, were useless against those of her opponents. Now Chinese troops are drilled by Western methods.

### THE BOXER RISING AND THE FLIGHT OF THE EMPEROR

NATURALLY there has been much feeling against all the new ideas in this most conservative country in the world; the first railways were torn up as soon as laid; telegraphs were bitterly opposed,

and Christian missionaries always carried their lives in their hands. So greatly have they been hated, in spite of the ability and devotion they have shown, especially in organizing relief in times of dreadful famine and plague, that in 1900 a great rising—called the Boxer rising—took place, against the missionaries at first, but eventually all the hated foreigners were attacked. For two terrible months the European residents in China were in great danger. Many were killed, and others suffered all the terrors of a siege. They were shut up in Peking, with a howling mob eager for their lives outside, till relief came, and the Boxers were driven away. The allied forces made their way to Peking, and the Emperor and his aunt fled far westward for safety, till peace was settled and justice done.

The efforts of Christian missionaries in China have been sadly hampered by the actions of traders of their own faith, by their want of principle, and by the bad example that many of them have set. Great wrong has been done in the past by Englishmen in furnishing, for the sake of money, arms and help to the rebels who were devastating China when Gordon came to the rescue, and by their insisting on sending into China the poisonous drug opium, against the wishes of the rulers; this also for the sake of gain.

The smoking of opium has quite as bad an effect on people as taking too much strong drink—it destroys them body and mind, and it has been a terrible curse to China. Strong efforts are now being made to persuade people to give up the habit that is so easy to form, and so very difficult to break.

### PEKING AND OTHER CHINESE CITIES

FOREIGNERS have now gained more than a mere foothold on the shores of China. It is comparatively easy for them to pass from end to end of the beautiful and wonderful kingdom. Many travelers have already done so, and they have shown us, by words and photographs, the marvels of this long-shut-up land. Let us, too, pass in.

We will start at the "Court of the North." Peking contains at least a million inhabitants, and is near the Pei-ho, at the mouth of which is its port, Tientsin. Peking is really made up of two cities—the outside Chinese city, where business is done, and the inside, or Manchu-Tartar town, where the foreign embassies are.

The Emperor holds his great court in an enclosure full of splendid buildings in the center of the Tartar city. To this famous Forbidden City very few foreigners ever gain admission.

Grand indeed are the pageants to be seen when



the Emperor visits the Temple of Heaven to pray for a good harvest, leaving upon the mind a dazzling blur of golden yellow—the imperial color of the Lord of the Yellow Land—of brilliant touches of blue, green, and crimson, as the trains of high officials in gorgeous array pass on in the procession. Long are the ceremonies, bowings, and prostrations, endless the prayers and readings from silken scrolls, as the incense floats toward heaven from bronze censers.

In China men seem to go on being examined all their lives, chiefly in order to obtain appointments. There are examination centers all over the country, but it is to Peking that thousands come every year to try to get into the highest college of all.

In Peking are the imperial factories where the beautiful silks and china are made for the Emperor to give as presents, and many splendid buildings, temples, tombs, palaces, and fairy-like gardens, stand out in striking contrast with the dirt and poverty everywhere to be seen. The dust—yellow dust—is dreadful in Peking, and penetrates into palace and hovel alike.

Railways are now being rapidly developed in many directions, especially in the rich delta plain of China, connecting the chief ports, and running far inland. Steamers ply on the network of rivers and canals, besides the old-fashioned boats with square sails, called junks, so familiar in Chinese pictures. Where the shifting bed of the Hwang-ho has to be crossed, the bridges are some of the longest in the world.

Shanghai is at the mouth of the Yang-tse-kiang, and is one of the chief trade centers in the country. Here we find rows of European houses and shops, with their names hanging downward, instead of across a signboard; and the public gardens are full of most glorious flowers. Crowds of people, European and Chinese, rich and poor, throng the streets, and factories with smoky chimneys remind us of the new ways that have begun to replace the old.

Nanking—the Court of the South—is also a very important place on the Yang-tse-kiang, and higher up still is Hankau, a great place for the tea trade. The porters waiting about for work on the tea steamers make us think of our long-shoremen at home.

From Hankau it is still some distance to the wonderful Yang-tse gorges, a thousand miles up the river from Shanghai. The high precipices, and towers of rocks and pinnacles, all of most fantastic or massive shapes, are relieved by the lovely trees and shrubs, and a profusion of flowers all growing wild, such as larkspur, jasmine, white lilies, sunflowers, and many others

that we grow in gardens and hothouses. It is exciting work punting the boats on the rapids, and, before long, communication between the two ends of this difficult part of the river will be improved. The rich province of Szechuen—larger than France—is watered by the upper Yang-tse-kiang, and is full of mountain and water beauty, as well as great, rich crops of all kinds.

There are many wonderful Buddhist temples and monasteries all over the country, often on mountains that are most difficult to climb. Pilgrims visit the shrines of saints, as in Tibet and India; and prayer-wheels, and ringing of bells, and grand ceremonials, with reverence of the lamas, show how wide-spread is the ancient religion.

Hong Kong (Fragrant Streams) is a small island at the mouth of the Si-kiang, or West River, and it belongs to the British. It is now a most important place, both as a trading center and as an army and navy station, though it was formerly a bare rock. Victoria, its capital, has a splendid harbor, and on its long quays, and in and out of its hive-like warehouses, thousands of Chinese work, dealing with the immense stacks of goods—silk and tea, cotton and woolen goods, coal, and many kinds of food—which all pass through this great port overlooked by hills.

Canton—the City of Perfection—is also on the West River, and for long it was the only port open to Europeans. Many Chinese live in boats on the river at Canton, and on other waterways.

### THE CRUEL CUSTOM OF PRESSING THE FEET OF GIRLS

THE very poor have a hard time in China, and among them baby girls are seldom welcomed, though every Chinaman is thankful and glad to have sons to carry on the customs connected with the worship of ancestors that alone can help them, as they believe, to happiness in a future life. It is one of the sights of China to see a family party setting off to the cemeteries on their great festival days, to honor, with gifts and feasting and enjoyment, the relatives who have become “guests on high.”

Formerly, little girls had a sad time of it, though now matters are slowly improving for them. The custom has long been that the little Chinese bride, married when very young to a husband she had perhaps never seen, should go to live in her mother-in-law's house, and become a mere drudge. And this was not the worst of it.

Centuries ago, before people wore stockings, linen bandages were wound round the legs and feet. When the fashion arose of admiring small

feet in China, the bandages were drawn tighter. At last the toes were crushed out of shape right under the foot, which was pressed into a tiny shoe much too small for the foot of a healthy baby of a year old.

We are filled with horror when we think of what the sad-eyed little Chinese girls go through to obtain little feet. Formerly, no Chinese girl could expect to be married unless she had small feet, and so, century after century, the cruel practice was carried on.

#### A WOMAN'S CUSTOM CHANGING AND A MAN'S HOLDING FAST

HAPPILY, the custom is now dying out. Now there are anti-binding leagues, and many Chinese have insisted on their daughters' feet being left free to develop with the rest of their bodies.

It is not so with that other striking feature of China, however, the pigtail. Originally, the pigtail was a badge of conquest by the Mongols, who insisted on Chinamen wearing their hair closely shaved in front, with a long plait behind, so that they could be distinguished at a glance. But the Chinese have long looked upon it as a mark of honorable distinction, and grieve bitterly when anything happens to deprive them of what has been a lifelong growth and care.

To the wonders of China there is no end. The nation is awakening, and who can say what may be the future of a country with such a great seaboard on the important Pacific, and with enormous coal and iron beds scattered in its various provinces, and millions upon millions of thrifty workers?

## STORIES FROM CHINESE HISTORY

BEFORE the time of Abraham there was in the lands in the center of China a great flood, which caused much loss and distress. The Emperor called to his ministers.

"Grandeess," he said, "we suffer much: the waters cover the hills on every side, they overtop the mountains, and seem to be rising even to the skies. Find us a man to remedy this evil."

So they sought and found a man, who labored for years, but could not rid the land of the flood. The Emperor then had him executed that he might learn to be more skilful! The son of this unfortunate engineer, not fearing the fate of his father, then worked his best, deepening the channels of the rivers, making canals and dikes, and after long toil succeeded in draining the land. The people sing about him:

"Yes, all about the Southern Hill  
Great Yu pursued his wondrous toil.  
He drained the plain, the marsh he dried;  
Our lord in fields laid out the soil."

Yu was rewarded by being made successor to the throne. He still worked for the good of the people, and, in order that even the poorest might have justice, he hung a bell at his gate which any one might ring. They say that, even if he was in his bath when the bell rang, he would rush out without stopping to put on his robes, or if at dinner, without waiting to finish his rice.

An ingenious subject of his made wine or spirits, and presented some to Yu, which he drank with great enjoyment; but he would not

use it much, because he said kings would lose their thrones through being too fond of it. So; we see, there was a temperance lecturer as soon as there was a distillery.

It was from the princes of the province of Chin that we get the name China. One of these was a great warrior, and conquered the kings of the provinces round about, and styled himself Emperor Shi. He divided his realm and set governors over each district, traveling round himself to see that no injustice was done. It was he who built the Great Wall, but it was also he who burned the books of Confucius, and persecuted the scholars who studied them, and for this the Chinese hate and despise him.

THE Chinese call themselves "Sons of Han," which is the name of the next dynasty, and the first Emperor who was a brave soldier was also a wise ruler. The story is told that, when he was firmly established on the throne, one of his ministers suggested that he should open schools and encourage learning.

"Learning!" exclaimed the Emperor; "I have none of it myself, nor do I feel the need of it. I conquered the empire on horseback." "But can you govern the empire on horseback? That is the question," replied the minister. The Emperor listened to this wise advice and ordered that learning should be again instituted. But the books had been burned and the scholars killed.



A great search was made, and though thousands of books had been destroyed and about five hundred scholars killed, still there were some bamboo tablets found on which there were writings engraved with a stylus or written in varnish. Pupils of the old scholars were discovered who could repeat long chapters, and these were written down. There was brought to court one old man of ninety. When the scholars were being hunted to death, he had put out his eyes and pretended to be an idiot, and so his life had been spared. He could remember whole books, and as he repeated page after page they wrote down the words till most of the writings of the ancients had been recovered.

So devoted to learning did the monarchs of the Han dynasty become, that they sent to the West to seek for more. The deputation brought back the religion of Buddhism from India.

THE next great dynasty was the Tang, and the Chinese are so proud of it that they call themselves often "Men of Tang." At this time the empire reached nearly to the Caspian Sea. Rulers in India and Persia sent ambassadors to the throne, and the Emperor Theodosius sent presents of rubies and emeralds. About this time Christianity was preached in China by the Nestorians. The Emperor gave it his approval, and it spread in the country. For five hundred years there were Christians to be found, but gradually they left the purity of their early faith and became like the heathen round them. There is a stone in Shensi which tells of how the faith was introduced, and this is all that is left of that early effort. Quite lately this stone has been moved by the officials to stand beside some other famous tablets. It took sixty or seventy men to carry it.

The learning which had revived under the Hans was encouraged by the Tangs, and examinations were introduced. In China comparatively few students study long enough to enter for an examination, and even to have *attempted* the first examination is a claim to honor. Only three in a hundred who enter pass, and of these only a few go on to study for the next degree, and in this only one in a hundred can succeed. Most students are satisfied with this, but a few work on, and of these 3 per cent. get the high title "Fit for Office."

In the examination a subject is given and the student has to write an essay, of which each letter must be beautifully formed, and each sentence like blank verse, and no page may have a single blot or alteration. From the days of the early Tangs till now, for generation after gen-

eration, for more than 1000 years, such examinations have been held.

A CHINESE Emperor who became fairly well known to Europe was Kublai Khan, a Mongol. He came with his armies from beyond the Great Wall, and was the first foreign ruler of China. Although he was a descendant of the rude Tartars, to keep out whom the wall was built, he adopted the civilization of the Chinese and encouraged their learned men. He made the Grand Canal and showed himself to be a very able ruler. It was in his time that the Italian traveler, Marco Polo, arrived at the capital, where he enjoyed such favor.

It was during the reign of the Mings that Europeans first came in numbers to China. They were not well received, but one Italian priest, Father Ricci, found a way in through his knowledge of Euclid. Others followed, and taught astronomy and other things, and, under the favor of the Emperor, the Christian religion once more began to spread.

The Mings were famous for the books that were written during their reigns. There were 300,000 books in the royal library, and it occurred to the Emperor that he would like a sort of encyclopedia made of them. So nearly 3000 men were set to work, and a book was produced of 22,877 volumes, and an index was made to it of sixty-six more volumes. Later another book of 200 volumes was prepared, and one about the geography of China in 500 volumes. We think thirty or forty volumes make a very large work, but in China it would just be a "pocket edition!"

One of the emperors who was a great warrior and a splendid ruler was also a poet, and found time to write more than 30,000 verses. He died about the time of the French Revolution.

The tombs of the Mings are very fine, and there is a long avenue leading up to them, with stone images, at each side, of priests, elephants, tigers, camels, etc., all more than life-size.

## A GREAT CHINAMAN OF LONG AGO

THERE once lived a great Chinaman of whom every one has heard. We mean Confucius, who lived five hundred years before Christ. Confucius was a soldier's son. His father was a brave officer, but he died when Confucius was only three. His mother encouraged the boy to study, and as he was very industrious he got on well. Much of his time was spent in reading the

ancient books. In later years he was asked: "How are you able to do so many things?" He answered: "I was born poor and had to learn." Instead of playing he liked to practise the ancient ceremonies of which he read.

He married at nineteen, and his mother died when he was twenty-three. He was then a teacher, and had some government employment; but as the ancient custom was to mourn for three years, he retired at once into private life, and spent these three years in study. The more he studied, the more he found to admire in the writings of the ancients, and he determined to try to influence his countrymen to live in obedience to their teachings. He gathered many followers and spent much time teaching them. He laid great stress on rules of correct behavior for all occasions, for he believed that if the outward manners were correct a man would keep right in all his conduct.

When he was fifty years old, Confucius was made governor of a city, which he ruled so splendidly that he was promoted to be Superintendent of Works and Minister of Crime for a whole state or dukedom. Again he showed his genius, and we read that "dishonesty and dissoluteness were ashamed and hid their heads. Loyalty and good faith became the characteristics of the people." Other states heard of the prosperity of the dukedom under his rule, and strangers came to see and admire. Unfortunately, the duke tired of the sage and his high ideas, and Confucius left the court, grieved and disappointed. He wandered for years from province to province, surprised that none of the dukes cared to govern by his rules, although the good effects of such government had been proved. Often he and his followers were ill-treated and sometimes in great want, but Confucius was always patient and cheerful, and would play on his lute and sing to them.

In his old age he settled down again, and spent his time editing the ancient writings of which he was so fond. A story, which every Chinese schoolboy knows, is told by Dr. Wells Williams, of how Confucius met a priggish little boy called Toh. The sage was out driving when he came across a number of children playing by the roadside. Toh was with them, and Confucius asked him: "Why is it that you alone do not play?" The boy answered that play was of no use, and he might get his clothes torn, and they would be a trouble to mend; besides, to play would be a great deal of trouble for no

reward. When he had spoken in this way, he began making a city out of bits of tile.

Confucius then asked him why he did not move out of the way of the carriage. Toh only said: "From ancient times till now it has always been considered proper for a carriage to turn out of the way of a city, not for a city to turn out for a carriage." Instead of boxing his ears, the sage got out of his carriage in order to have a talk with such a wonderful boy, and asked him to go for a ramble with him. Toh replied: "A stern father is at home, whom I am bound to serve; an affectionate mother is there, whom it is my duty to cherish; a worthy elder brother is at home, whom it is proper for me to obey, with a tender younger brother, whom I must teach; and an intelligent teacher is there, from whom I am required to learn. How have I leisure to go a-rambling with you?"

Confucius then invited Toh to come into his carriage and have a game of chess; but he only got another snub, for Toh proceeded to show that any game was a waste of time, and if it were indulged in would lead to the ruin of the country. Confucius asked this young marvel many riddles. He answered them all most skilfully, and then put posers to Confucius. He asked how many stars there were in the sky, and Confucius told him to keep to things on the earth. Toh then asked how many houses there were on the earth. Poor Confucius said: "Come now, speak about something that is before our eyes; why must you converse about heaven and earth?" The impudent youngster then said: "Well, speak about what's before our eyes: how many hairs are there in your eyebrows?"

We are told that Confucius smiled, but did not answer, and, turning to his disciples, said: "This boy is to be feared." We think you will agree that the sage was right, for the child seems to have been "a little terror."

Confucius was over seventy when he died, and his grave is under a great mound of earth. Every year a few more shovels of earth are thrown on the heap, so that it is now like a small hill.

He turned the thoughts of the men of his time back to the simplicity and purity of the ancient writings, and taught that to study books, to be true and diligent, and to behave politely were the best things in life. His teaching has had a tremendous influence in China for all these 2400 years. As long as there is a Chinaman in the world the name of Confucius will be honored.



# CHILDREN AND HOME LIFE IN MANY LANDS

## PART II

### A SWISS PEASANT HOME

As a rule, the Swiss peasant has a comfortable home. Here and there, it is true, may be found people living in houses which are little better than rude wooden huts, but for the most part the Swiss people build themselves good, strong, handsome dwellings.

A Swiss chalet is both broad and long. This makes it very firm, and enables it to defy the most furious storm which can sweep down from the mountain heights. The first thing the builder does is to raise a strong wall to a height of about six or eight feet. Upon the foundation the upper part of the house is built, and this is of wood. The broad roof is of gentle slope, and is formed of sheets of pine-wood. Upon these pine-shingles heavy stones are sometimes laid, in order that the roof may not be torn away by the fierce gales of winter. Around the wooden part of the house a gallery runs, and this is sheltered by the broad eaves, which spring out well beyond the walls. When such a house is finished it has a very quaint and pleasing look, and it is as comfortable inside as it is charming without.

There are no living-rooms in the stone basement. This part of the house is given up in front to roomy cellars, where the produce of the fields and vineyards and orchards is stored; at the back to stables, cow-houses, and threshing-floor. The living-rooms are above, and open on the gallery which runs round the house. There is a large room, where the family meet for their meals, and where they sit in the evening; and there is a smaller room—a kind of parlor—where the best furniture is kept, a room only used on grand occasions. Then, they have the best bedroom, and one or two smaller rooms, where the children sleep.

The furniture of these houses is strong and simple—large heavy tables and benches and dressers, made by the local carpenter, or very often by the owner himself, of dark walnut-

wood. On the dresser in the living-room stand painted plates, the favorite ornament of a Swiss kitchen, and a great earthenware stove, often covered with green tiles, stands in a corner of the large apartment.

In these homes there is, as a rule, very little money, but a great plenty of those things necessary to human comfort. Money is very useful where everything has to be bought, but what has a fairly prosperous Swiss peasant to buy? Nothing save things like coffee, sugar, salt, and spices—things he cannot produce for himself.

In a corner of the largest bedroom stands a loom, at which the mother and daughters weave the fleeces of their sheep into strong homespun cloth and thick warm flannel. Thus the family are clothed. In the garden, where glorious white lilies blossom in June, they grow vegetables. The vineyard gives them wine; the orchards give them fruit; the fields around their home give them corn; and the crops are stored in the ample cellars below the living-rooms. They store apples and pears for the winter by cutting them into quarters and drying them carefully.

Their mode of living, too, is very simple. Meat is not often eaten; in many families it never appears on the table except on Sundays at the midday meal. Very rarely, then, is it fresh; in the storeroom hang pieces of dried beef, mutton, or in some parts, chamois. One Swiss delicacy—and it is very good indeed—consists of a joint of beef, which is first hung in the chimney and carefully smoked. It is then cured with salt and spice, and finally dried in the cold, clear winter air. When cooked it is very delicate and sweet in flavor.

The produce of the dairy takes a great share in feeding a Swiss peasant family. Milk, cream, butter, cheese, curds—all are greatly relished, and a favorite dish is made of sweet cheese-curds stewed in cream, and then baked with fresh butter.

Before the children go to school in the morning they have a breakfast of bread with butter or cheese, and coffee, or a bowl of maize and milk beaten up together. When they come back to dinner they get a hunch of bread to begin with, and then potatoes and buttermilk, and a bowl of soup, in which perhaps a small piece of bacon has been boiled—perhaps not. Among the better-off peasantry the dinner is finished with pudding or pancakes. Supper at night is just the same as breakfast in the morning, and on this diet the Swiss children grow up to be rosy, hardy, sturdy youngsters, who will make very strong men and women.

Well, we have dealt with clothing and food; what of firing? This may be had in plenty from the woods which clothe the mountainsides. But no man may cut where he pleases, not even in

his own wood. The forest laws of Switzerland are very strict, for a great forest is a natural rampart against the onrush of avalanches from the heights above. So in the autumn the forester marks those trees which can safely be spared, and the woodmen fell them in the winter, when no other work can be done.

The trees are cut into great logs, and when the spring comes and the snows melt, these logs are thrust into the torrents which dash down every slope. Down whirl the logs to the valley below, with its homesteads, and here they are caught and drawn from the stream. Then they are stacked to dry, and before the next winter, axe and saw go to work upon them, and split and cut them into handy-sized pieces with which to stuff the great stove until it roars again through the long dark days of the bitter winter.

## YOUTHFUL DANES AT WORK AND PLAY

DENMARK is renowned for its schools. These schools are all under government control, and meet the wants of every class. Whether the children are educated at home or sent to school, they must begin lessons at the age of seven. Shirking lessons is quite impossible for little Danes, as everybody thinks that education comes before all else, so parents do not encourage idleness or extra holidays during the school year.

All children between the ages of seven and fourteen must attend school, either at home or in the government schools. The hours are not long nor wearisome. The classes are small, even in the free schools, never more than thirty-five pupils to a teacher, and generally less. The lesson lasts forty minutes, and then there is an interval for play. Lessons in writing, reading, and arithmetic are varied by tailoring lessons for boys, and cookery for girls, after they are ten years of age. At every school gymnastics play an important part—pleasant lessons these are for all—but perhaps the lesson the boys most delight in is their instruction in sloyd. Each lad has his carpenter's bench with necessary tools; and, as we know, every boy is happy when making or marring with hammer and nails. "I have seen," says a traveler, "some charming models as well as useful things made by the boys—a perfect miniature landau, complete in every detail, benches, bureaus, carts, tables, chairs, and many other serviceable articles."

Besides this pleasure-work at school, the boys, if they are farmers' sons, have practical lessons at home by helping their father on the farm.

The authorities being anxious to help the farmer, they allow him to keep a boy at home half the day for instruction in farm work, but the other half must be spent at school. Often the prizes at the municipal schools are clothes, watches, clocks, or tools, all of which are worked for eagerly by the pupils.

The boys and girls of Denmark begin early with gymnastic exercises, and soon become sturdy little athletes from sheer love of the practice. All Danes pride themselves—and with good reason—on their national athletic exercises. At the Olympic Games held in London in 1908, the Danish ladies carried away the gold medal by their fine gymnastic display.

It is an amusing sight to see the Danes at a seaside resort taking their morning swim; each one on leaving the water runs about on the sun-warmed beach, and goes through a gymnastic display on his own account, choosing the exercise he considers best to warm and invigorate him after his dip. The children require no second bidding to follow father's example, and as they emerge from the water breathless, pantingly join in the fun. Sons try to go one better than the father in some gymnastic feat which the father's stoutness renders impossible! The merry peals of laughter which accompany the display speak eloquently of the thorough enjoyment of all the bathers.

The pleasant waters of Denmark are beloved of yachtsmen. Sailing round the wooded islands, you are impressed by their picturesque beauty, which is seen to advantage from the water. One is not surprised that this popular



pastime comes first with every Danish boy, who, whether swimming, rowing, or sailing, feels perfectly at home on the water. Everybody cycles in Denmark. Cycle-stands are provided outside every shop, station, office, and college, so that you have no more difficulty in disposing of your cycle than your umbrella.

Football is a summer game here—spirited matches you would think impossible at this season—but the Danes have them, and what is more, they will inform you that they quite enjoy what appears to the spectator a hot, fa-

tiguing amusement. Golf and hockey are also played, and "bandy"—that is, hockey on the ice—is a favorite winter sport. A bandy match is quite exciting to watch. The players, armed with a wooden club, often find the ice a difficulty when rushing after the solid rubber ball. This exhilarating game is known in some parts of the world as "shinty." The Danes excel in skating, skiing, and tobogganing, as well as in other winter games. Lawn-tennis and croquet are very popular, croquet being the favorite pastime of Danish girls and women.

## YOUNG NORWEGIANS

It is not easy to say whether Norwegian boys and girls are very good, or whether they are spoiled. You may travel all day on a steamer with a well-to-do family from the city, or you may live in a farmhouse with a peasant's family for a month, and the chances are that you will never hear the parents say "Don't." One thing we may be sure of: the children who live in the country parts do very much as they please; in the summer they go to bed when they feel tired, sometimes not till nearly midnight; and they are not worried about getting their boots and their clothes wet, because no Norwegian troubles his or her head about such matters. Moreover, the life is such a simple one that perhaps there is little opportunity for real naughtiness.

These country children have a very easy time, as for the greater part of the year they have no school to go to, and they spend all the summer out in the open air, looking after the ponies, cows, sheep, or goats, or haymaking, or rowing about, or fishing, or something of the kind. In the winter they, as well as the town children, are all obliged to go to school, from the age of seven to fourteen or fifteen—that is, till their confirmation, and until this takes place they receive religious instruction from the priest on Sunday afternoons, for there is no religious teaching in the schools.

There is a great difficulty about the country schools, because in some districts the farms are miles and miles apart, and it would be quite impossible for the children to walk to school and back in the day. In such districts the government schoolmasters have to go about from place to place, and teach the children in their own homes. If there should be two or three farms close together, one of the farmers provides a schoolroom in his house, and the schoolmaster lives with him as his guest for a time, and then

goes on to another house, just as once was common in some parts of our own country, where the schoolmaster used to "board around." But the schoolmasters must give every child twelve weeks' schooling in the year. This does not amount to a great deal—only three months of school in the year!

The wonder is that the children contrive to remember anything that they have learned, with nine long months in which to forget it. Yet they work hard while they are about it; they are inspected every year, and they are required to pass quite difficult examinations at the end. It is expected, however, that before long the twelve weeks' compulsory schooling will be increased to fifteen weeks.

In the towns the children are not forced to attend school for more than twelve weeks in the year, but there are, of course, numbers of private schools, high schools, etc., to which parents can send their children, on payment, for a superior education. And at such schools the work goes on for a much longer period of the year—in fact, all through the year, except for two months in the summer and a week at Christmas and at Easter.

In spite of their long holidays, the children do not have half the fun that American boys and girls have. There is no baseball, football, hockey, golf, or any game of that sort, and there is not a tennis-court in the land. How then, you will ask, do they manage to amuse themselves?

It must be remembered that the winter is much longer in Norway than it is with us, and even if the boys wanted to play football they would not be able to do so, as the ground is covered with snow. At that season they have their various winter sports to keep them busy—skiing, sliding on snowshoes, skating, tobogganing, and the like—and they do not require any other games. In

the summer they go for walking tours into the mountains, or they go fishing in the rivers and lakes, or sometimes shooting.

Though the Norwegians boast that ball-games have been played in the country since Saga times, such games are of the most elementary kind, and would be scorned by any American boy. But for all that the Norwegian boys are every bit as manly as any other boys, because they enjoy many forms of sport which make them so; and they are strong, because they take plenty of exercise, and have physical drill in their schools.

Of course the girls have dolls and dolls' houses and dolls' tea-parties, like the girls of every land, and there are toys of every description in the stores. The peasant children, however, who live far out in the country, never see a store, and have to provide themselves with things to play with; but it is wonderful what an amount of amusement they can get out of an old bone, or a block of wood, tied to a yard or two of string.

As a rule their fathers are good hands at carving wood, so toys are easily made for the smaller children, and one finds everywhere such simple toys as wooden dolls, animals, miniature boats, sleighs, and carts.

But the real enjoyment of the Norwegian children—at any rate of the girls—is the outdoor game, played when the weather is fine, both in the town and in the country, wherever there are enough children to make a game. To see a bevy of these quaint little girls throwing heart and soul into their games is delightful, and they have scores and scores of different ones. In most of them dancing and singing play a great part, and the most popular form of game is what is called a "ring dance," in which, as the name implies, the players join hands and dance round in a circle.

Many of these ring dances are much like some of our games, and the tunes and words sung to them are almost similar.

But we have not space to tell you the half of what we should like to say of all the different ways in which Norwegian children amuse themselves. We will speak about some of the work they are taught to do, and then we must take leave of them.

As soon as the snow has melted off the mountains the farmer's flocks and herds are sent up to the sæters, or highland pastures, usually in charge of the younger women and girls of the farm, and there, throughout the summer, the dairy work is carried on. As in all mountainous countries, rich and sweet herbage follows the melting of the snow, and the cows and goats give an abundance of good milk, which is turned into butter and cheese, to be sold or consumed in the winter. Life at the sæterhut, or mountain farm, is healthy and delightful, though much hard work has to be got through each day.

Children seldom go to the sæters until old enough to be able to do real work, but one often sees a girl of fourteen or so looking after a flock of goats. She will be out with them all day as they feed on the mountainsides, and will do all the milking. When seen for the first time this is rather an amusing operation, and decidedly a practical one. The milkmaid seizes a goat, straddles her, with face toward the goat's tail, and, stooping down, proceeds to milk. From a little distance all you see is the goat's hind legs emerging from beneath a blue petticoat, which looks most peculiar.

But the children who are too young to spend the summer at the sæters find plenty to do at home, and they learn almost as soon as they can toddle that there is work for every one. Quite small boys and girls manage to do a good day's haymaking, and they can row a boat or drive a team before they have reached their teens. Such things they regard as amusements, for they have few other ways of amusing themselves, and their one ambition is to do what their fathers and mothers do.

## PEOPLE, YOUNG AND OLD, IN HOLLAND

IN speaking of Holland and the men and women and children who live in that little country, we will tell you about them first as you would see them if you were to visit a village called Volendam. From what you would see there you could judge of things very much the same to be seen in many other parts of the country.

Volendam is a tiny village on the Zuyder Zee,

or South Sea. All the men in the place are fishermen. Nowadays they are rather poor, but at one time they caught a great many anchovies, which they sold for a very good price. They spent most of the money they earned in this way in buying jewelry for themselves, their wives, and their children, and as they wanted as much show as possible for their money, they bought great big silver buttons.



First, we should tell you that they do not dress as we do. The men wear tight coats of blue or red, with striped waistcoats underneath, and very baggy trousers, which are made of red cloth, blue cloth, and dark velvet. They wear rough stockings and big wooden shoes, which are called sabots. On Sundays, if the weather is not suitable for fishing, they waddle like ducks up and down the one little narrow road of Volendam, with their hands in their big pockets and a cigar in their mouths, or else they squat on their heels in rows along the side of the road, and perhaps, instead of smoking a cigar, they put a lump of tobacco in their mouths and chew it as you might chew taffy. It sounds rather horrible, doesn't it? The little boys, even the tiniest ones, are dressed just like their fathers and big brothers, and when they come out of school they like to behave in just the same way, and they strut about very proudly with their hands in their pockets, and, if they can get hold of it, they have the end of a cigar in their little mouths. What a bad example this would be for us to follow!

The jewelry of the men consists entirely of buttons. At the waist of their wide trousers they have two silver buttons just as big as they can afford to have. Sometimes they are like saucers, and stretch right across the body. On the little boys they are not so large, but about the size of half-dollars, with a ship or a Dutch boy beaten or engraved on them. Their striped waistcoats fasten at the neck with two real gold buttons; they have earrings in their ears, and often rings on their fingers. Besides this, the buttons on their coats are of silver and gold.

The women's and girls' favorite jewelry is for their necks. They all wear necklaces made of five and six rows of corals with the most beautiful clasps. Of course, some of the poor people have imitation necklaces, but this is very seldom, for the girls will go without food and warmth so that their jewelry may be of the best. The women show each other how rich they are in the same way as in other countries; namely, by their dress; but while many other women make themselves as slim and elegant as they can, the Dutch peasant woman, when really well dressed, must look very fat, for the more woolen petticoats she wears the more she is admired by her neighbors.

On Sunday morning, when all the world goes to church, the women roll along looking as big as houses, and with each step they try to swing their clothes, which only come to the ankle, so that their friends may count how many petti-

coats they have on. And what do you think the poor folk do who have only their dress skirt to wear? They pad themselves all round with cotton-wool, so that they may look fat, and we fancy they must walk very quietly and modestly, so that their poor single skirts may not betray their poverty. All the women and girls wear tight lace caps very stiffly starched, so that the pieces which turn back from their faces stand out like white wings. The baby boys and girls, dressed in the same way as their mothers and fathers, are the dearest little things. They are like little dolls. A traveler says of them: "I used to pet them so much that they followed me wherever I went, and I bought sweets and fed them as if they were little pigeons. All over Holland in the villages it is the same: the babies dress like their parents."

Each district in Holland has its own peculiar costume. So one might imagine one was living on the stage in a play, where every one is dressed up. In another village, called Axel, part of the costume is made of bright handkerchiefs which are pinned on to a frame on the shoulders. This frame is as high as the head, and the little girls look like butterflies as they run about in the sunny green fields. In another place—an island called Marken—all the women have a long ringlet of hair on each side of their faces, and a fringe cut straight across their foreheads. Of course, they wear a cap, so this is all the hair they show; but the old ladies, who haven't any hair left, wear corkscrew curls made of false hair and even of cotton. In this island the boys are dressed like girls until they are six years old, and the only way to tell them apart is that the boys have a little button on their caps. When six years old the boys wear trousers, but the top of their dress is still a girl's, and they look very quaint and amusing. This island is in the Zuyder Zee.

In Holland in the winter you can skate to your heart's content. All the canals are frozen, and instead of walking or driving everybody uses skates, even the men and women carrying big baskets on their heads as they go to market to buy and sell. The little children learn to skate as you learn to walk, and they have such a splendid balance that they just tie their skates to their stockinged feet with a bit of string and glide along as if they had never done anything else. The wooden sabots they wear to walk in are not easy things to manage, but the little Dutch babies toddle along in them, and even run quite fast. In any case, they do not get wet feet if they go on the grass. They eat potatoes and black bread, and black bread and potatoes; some-

times they have a little bacon-fat to dip their potatoes in, sometimes they have a little cheese and fish, but they eat meat very rarely.

In the country districts all over Holland the houses are built alike. In a few villages they are thatched, but with these exceptions they are gaily painted little buildings with bright-red tiled roofs. The walls are often of planks of wood painted green, and the little window-frames are the freshest white. The people spend much more time and thought on the cleanliness of their houses than on their own persons, and nowhere in the world will you see brighter, cleaner little villages than in Holland. The whole of the outside of the house is washed every week, and the owners do not forget the bricks or cob-

bles which pave the road in front of them. Their windows shine like diamonds, and indoors their bits of brass and copper are rubbed till they might serve as mirrors.

Instead of having bedsteads as we do, these people sleep in a kind of cupboard in the wall. The bed is made two or three feet from the ground, and when they are inside they draw the little curtains and settle themselves snugly in their box. It seems a wonder that they ever wake up, it must be so very stuffy; and often two or three babies sleep with their mother and father when there is only one bed. However, some of the houses are little farms, and the elder children sleep in the hay and straw in the stables with the horses and cows.

## HOME LIFE IN ITALY

THE upper classes in Italy live in vast palaces, very stately and grand perhaps, but far too big to be made comfortable, particularly in winter. The size of the rooms in these old Italian palaces is wonderful. In one palace in Florence, we are told, the drawing-room is so enormous that one corner is used as a billiard-room, with a full-sized table; another part is devoted to music, and is occupied by a concert grand; another part is the hostess's boudoir; and all the rest serves as an ordinary reception-room. When a dance is given, the carpet is partly rolled up, some of the furniture is pushed aside, and there is a ballroom ready for use. Roman houses are even larger.

Rich and poor often live together in a very odd fashion in Italy. It is not merely that the palace and the hovel stand side by side. They very often do that; and indeed they are very often under one roof.

A great house is divided into flats, each occupying one story. The finer parts of the building are often inhabited by people of great wealth, while the garrets above them and the cellars below swarm with wretched creatures, who often have not enough to eat. The latter see splendid equipages drive up to their own doors, as it were, every day, and costly viands brought upstairs for great banquets. At night they see ladies glittering with jewels enter the house, and hear the strains of dance music, while they themselves are starving above and below. Nowhere is there a rich quarter inhabited by the rich alone, nor a poor quarter containing no good houses. The slums invade all parts of the town,

and sometimes are found near the gates of the Royal Palace itself.

In the country it is the same: the nobleman's villa is surrounded by the houses of his *contadini*, or peasantry. In Tuscany, where the laborers and farmers are better off, the contrast is not so striking or painful; but in the South one often comes across a fine castle, furnished with comfort, and even luxury, the sideboard bright with silver plate, the walls covered with silk and tapestry and good pictures, placed in the midst of a village of hovels.

The Italian of the middle class never eats more than two real meals a day. When he awakes he drinks a cup of coffee and milk, perhaps with a piece of bread and butter, perhaps not. His first meal comes between ten and twelve, and is a substantial luncheon, when he eats eggs and macaroni, a dish of meat served with vegetables, and ends with cheese and fruit. With this meal he drinks wine, which is, of course, the national drink, and accompanies every meal among rich and poor. After lunch he takes a rest before resuming his occupation, and in summer this rest becomes the siesta, when every one dozes through the heat of the day.

He does not take tea, which, as a rule, he looks upon as a medicine, and his next meal is dinner, eaten about six o'clock. The order of the dinner is much the same as with us, but there is one great difference in the fact that almost every eatable is cooked in oil. This is not so bad if the oil be excellent, sound olive-oil, but at times it is rancid, and then the result is far from tasty to an American palate. The favorite condiment is garlic. If you are invited to an Italian



dinner, you must not refuse anything. Your hosts press every dish upon you and every different wine. To refuse, and to persist in your refusal, would give offence. It is as much as to say that you do not think much of their dinner.

Children are a very conspicuous feature of family life. They are here, there, and everywhere, and are not only seen, but heard. There is no such place as a nursery in an Italian household. As soon as the children are old enough to sit on a chair they live with their parents the whole day long. When the lady of the house has company, her offspring are generally with her, and are allowed to sprawl over the guests, and, if they can talk, they frequently interrupt their elders or contradict them. Children of six

dine with their father and mother, and remain up until ten or eleven o'clock. Babies are sometimes taken to the theater, and children of five quite often.

Everywhere in Italy children are humored to the top of their bent, and the baby is king of all. Every one makes way for a child. Parents, in their love and care for the babies, become gentlemen and gentlewomen. Harsh voices are softened for a baby's ear; the price of sweets is lowered by the veriest sharper of a street vender; and more than one handsome, lawless brigand has been known to come down from his mountain fastness, stride through the neighboring town, and, at the risk of his life, demand that his child be baptized.

## THE BOYHOOD OF MICHAEL ANGELO

BY ALEXANDER BLACK

ON a certain day, toward the end of the fifteenth century, two boys walked homeward through the streets of the beautiful city of Florence, in Italy. The name of one of the boys was Francesco Granacci, who was then a pupil of the leading painter of the city, Domenico Ghirlandajo. The name of the other boy, who had that day, in company with his friend, made his first visit to the great artist's studio, was Michael Angelo.

This was a great day for Michael Angelo. For months and years he had dreamed of being an artist, and now for the first time he had seen and spoken to the famous teacher, watched the work of the pupils gathered in the studio. Had it been left to his choice, Michael Angelo would have joined the school the next morning. But he had no reason to believe his father would allow him to take up paint brushes instead of going into a profession, or the woolen trade, like his brothers.

In fact, it was because his parents, who were of some rank in Florence, though with little wealth, had planned for him a great position in law or politics, that Angelo had been sent to an academy where it was expected he would get a good education. But instead of studying his books, Angelo made chalk drawings on the walls and floor of his room. This greatly disappointed his father, who first rebuked him, and then, when the lessons were persistently neglected for the pictures, added a flogging. The whole family was worried about the boy's obstinate wish to be an artist. This was why the lad, elated by

his visit to the art-school, was still doubtful of the effect his enthusiasm might produce at home.

This enthusiasm would have had little influence with Michael Angelo's father, but for one important fact. This important fact was that the boy's drawings had extraordinary merit. Nobody, not even the annoyed brothers and uncles who made such continued remonstrance, denied that they were remarkable. So that something more eloquent than Michael Angelo's spoken arguments was constantly pleading his cause. Perceiving that his son had not merely great energy, and great hopes, but great natural aptitude for art, the father finally gave up his own cherished plans, and permitted Michael Angelo to become an apprentice of Ghirlandajo.

When this long-desired permission was given, Michael Angelo was just passing his thirteenth birthday. How much confidence the master had in his new apprentice is shown by the fact that instead of exacting a fee, or taking him on trial, he agreed to pay Michael Angelo six gold florins for the first year, eight for the second, and ten for the third. From the outset, the young artist pursued his studies, as well as the apprentice work assigned to him, with the utmost earnestness and activity. His progress in drawing astonished his companions, and almost bewildered his master, who one day exclaimed on seeing one of Angelo's original sketches: "The boy already knows more about art than I do myself."

At this time the control of the Florentine



YOUNG MICHAEL ANGELO AT WORK UPON HIS FIRST PIECE OF SCULPTURE.



government was in the hands of Lorenzo de' Medici, then probably the most distinguished man in all Italy. Lorenzo took a most tyrannical view of the people's rights, and his personal habits were not always what they should have been. But he was a man with a brilliant mind, who made great and successful efforts to increase the splendor of the city, and who came to be called Lorenzo the Magnificent. He gave every encouragement to art and literature, particularly when they might extend his own reputation for magnificence. His taste and judgment in matters of art were equal to his shrewdness and courage as a politician. During the time of Michael Angelo's apprenticeship, Lorenzo formed new plans for furthering art study in the gardens of San Marco, in which he placed many valuable examples of the ancient masters. When Lorenzo suggested to Ghirlandajo the sending of worthy pupils to study sculpture in these gardens, the master selected Michael Angelo and his friend Francesco.

It has frequently been said that the Florentine teacher was jealous of Michael Angelo's genius as a draughtsman, and was prompted by this feeling, in turning the lad from painting to sculpture. Ghirlandajo had certainly received some occasion for irritation, since the apprentice was always very positive in his opinions, and, on one occasion, at least, went so far as to correct a drawing which the master himself had given to one of his pupils as a model. Yet there is no evidence of any unkindly feeling in Ghirlandajo's recommendation. It is quite probable that Michael Angelo had shown a strong leaning toward sculpture. At any rate, he was as delighted to find himself in the gardens of San Marco as if he had been dropped into the Garden of Eden.

One afternoon, the Duke Lorenzo in walking through the garden came upon young Michael Angelo, who was busily chiseling his first piece of sculpture. The Duke saw in the stone the face of a faun which the boy was copying from an antique mask, but which, with his usual impatience of imitation, he was changing so as to show the open lips and teeth. "How is it," said the Duke, drawing closer, "that you have given your faun a complete set of teeth? Don't you know that such an old fellow was sure to have lost some of them?" Michael Angelo at once saw the justice of the criticism. Artists are not always ready to receive adverse comment. Michael Angelo himself was quick-tempered and hard to move. A hot word to one of his boy companions on a certain occasion brought so severe a blow in the face, that all

truthful portraits of Michael Angelo have since had to show him with a broken nose. But the Duke's criticism was kindly given, and was plainly warranted, and the young sculptor could hardly wait until the Duke walked on before beginning the correction. When the Duke saw the faun's face again he found some of the teeth gone, and the empty sockets skilfully chiseled out.

Delighted with this evidence of the lad's willingness to seize and act upon a suggestion, and impressed anew by his artistic skill, the Duke made inquiries, learned that Michael Angelo had borrowed stone and tools on his own account in his eagerness to begin sculpture (he was first set at drawing from the statuary), and ended by sending for the boy's father. The result of the consultation was that the Duke took Michael Angelo under his own special patronage and protection, and was so well pleased after he had done it that no favor seemed too great to bestow upon the energetic young artist. Michael Angelo, then only fifteen, not only received a key to the Garden of Sculpture, and an apartment in the Medici Palace itself, but had a place at the Duke's table. In fact, a real attachment grew up between Michael Angelo and the Duke, who frequently called the boy to his own rooms, when he would open a cabinet of gems and intaglios, seek his young visitor's opinions, and enter into long and confidential talks.

Michael Angelo found himself in the company of the best instructors, and otherwise surrounded by many influences that developed his mind and incited his ambition. The most illustrious people in Italy were daily visitors at the Palace, where the Duke not only gave imposing entertainments, but gathered quiet groups of artists, writers, and musicians. It is likely that there were many distracting and even dangerous temptations in life at such a palace. But fortunately Michael Angelo had a strong will, and little love for things that were not noble. He permitted nothing to stop his progress in art.

It was under the encouragement of one of his teachers that Michael Angelo, when about seventeen, undertook to chisel an important bas-relief of the Centaurs and the Lapithæ, in which his success was marvelous. Michael Angelo himself, looking on the work many years later, said that he wished he had never given a moment to anything but sculpture.

This remark of Michael Angelo recalls the fact that at the time the Centaurs were carved the author of the work was steadily increasing his knowledge and grasp of painting and architecture, as well as acquiring useful ideas of his-



tory and literature. A world of thought-riches was opening up before him. It may, therefore, be imagined that his grief was very great when, at the end of three years of such happy advancement the Duke Lorenzo died, and Michael Angelo returned to his father's house in much misery of mind, and set up his studio there. Lorenzo's son Piero asked the boy back to the palace. But the place never was the same, for the new Duke had not his father's qualities of mind. One of his whims was to induce Michael Angelo to work during a severe winter on an immense figure in snow. This was undoubtedly the finest snow man ever built; but Michael Angelo had no heart for work that so soon must melt away.

Before his return to the palace, Michael Angelo had begun a series of careful studies in anatomy, to familiarize himself with every line and dimension of the figure. He toiled at this study for years, until his mastery of the human form was complete. He never painted or chiseled a figure without working out in a

drawing the most delicate details of the anatomy, so that no turn of vein or muscle might be false to the absolute truth. It is by such means that any mastery is secured. Behind every work of genius, whether book, picture, or engine, is an amount of labor and pains—yes, and of *pain*—that would have frightened off a weak spirit.

When political disturbances broke out in Florence, Michael Angelo hurried away to Venice, and to Bologna. Poor Florence was always tumbling from one revolution into another. The troubles of Florence were reflected in the life of Michael Angelo, who never again found the peace of those San Marco gardens. But Michael Angelo's stern and courageous mind was never crushed by disappointment. After a life crowded with labors, he left behind him colossal triumphs in painting, in architecture, and in sculpture, besides making a great name as a poet. He was a giant in every labor that he undertook, one of the world's greatest men.

Michael Angelo was born in 1475 at a castle in Tuscany where his father held office as a governor. His father's name was Lodovico Buonarroti, and he himself was christened Michelagnuolo Buonarroti, but for four centuries he has been popularly called Michael Angelo, or Michelangelo. The head of a faun, upon which the boy worked in the San Marco Gardens, may still be seen in one of the museums of Florence. The piece of sculpture representing Michael Angelo at work on the faun's head, and which forms the illustration given with this sketch, was executed by Emilio Zocchi, and occupies a place in the Pitti Gallery at Florence.





# CHILDREN AND COURTESY FOUR HUNDRED YEARS AGO \*

BY ELIZABETH R. PENNELL

If you have read—and of course you have—Stevenson's "Garden of Verse," you will remember the delightful poem of four lines that describes the "Whole Duty of Children":

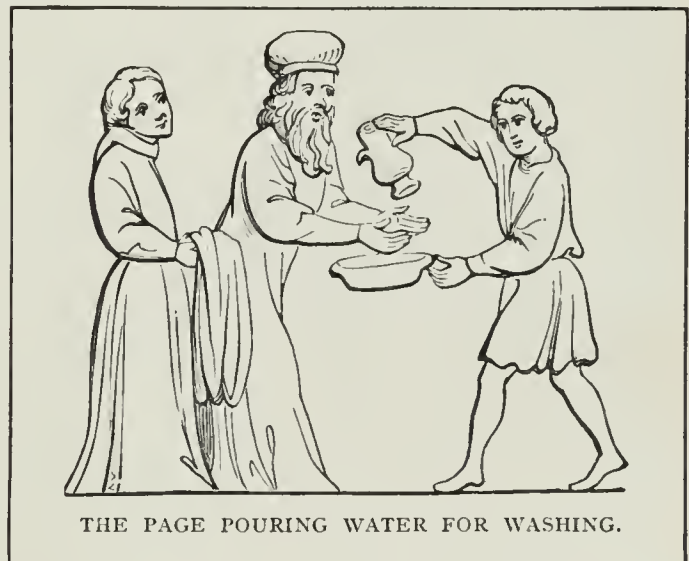
A child should always say what 's true  
And speak when he is spoken to,  
And behave mannerly at table:  
At least as far as he is able.

Perhaps it has made you wish that duty was such a very simple thing for young people now. I am told, but I hope it is not so, that manners, as a study, have gone out of the school course altogether, in favor of more big books and even more lessons than ever. But even in my time, which, after all, was not centuries ago, we thought a great deal about manners. I look back still, and blush all over at the thought of the weekly politeness class, when we were not only taught to "behave mannerly," but made to give examples of how to do it! Oh, that awful moment when, with almost one hundred pairs of eyes—and laughing eyes—fixed upon me, I had to get up and practise dropping a curtsy or picking up a handkerchief. I have never suffered so from stage-fright since.

But that is not what I started to write about. I wanted rather to tell you something that I fancy will surprise you as much as it surprised me. More than four hundred years ago—that is, in an age when we have a way of thinking people were shocking barbarians because they had not any railway trains, or electric lights, or telephones, or trolleys—there were Englishmen who wrote books of "Curtesie," as they spelled it then, and "Demeanour," for the young; and the funny part of it is that the rules they laid down, though longer and more elaborate, are very much the same as Stevenson's in his four lines of advice.

In those days fathers and mothers chose to provide for bringing up their own children, boys and girls both, by sending them to

the houses of great nobles, where they served as pages, or as little maids of honor, and did many things no longer included in the education of the sons and daughters of well-to-do parents. Sometimes the boys waited at table; almost always it was their duty to hand round to the great people the water and towels for the businesslike hand-washing that was then the fashion before and after meals. Sometimes they were no better than the servants of



THE PAGE POURING WATER FOR WASHING.

those times, and were set to work by a touch of the whip, if necessary.

Now, in the nobler houses there were often troops of these youngsters, and you can imagine that it was not the easiest thing in the world to keep them in order. My wonder is that the princes and nobles and prelates put up with the nuisance of it all. But they did, and no doubt it was for their own comfort that manners were more seriously cultivated than book-learning. "If you have not good manners you are not worth a fly," one of the old writers told the youths in his charge. "All virtues are included in curtesie, which comes from heaven," a second assured them. Even when children were sent to school, it was chiefly that, like the "only son of a lord of

\* The illustrations with this article are from Wright's "Domestic Manners and Customs," by kind permission of J. S. Virtue & Co., Limited, London, England.

high degree" in the ballad, they might learn courtesy!

As I have said, the rules for good manners were written; and often, that they might be the sooner got by heart, they were in verse. Later on, in the fifteenth century, a few poems of the kind were printed in books; but the greater number remained in manuscripts, fortunately preserved as treasures in the British Museum and other libraries until, not many years ago, a learned society called the Early English Text Society collected and published them in a big volume, edited by Dr. Furnivall, and this is how it came about that I learned about them.

The first is "The Babees' Book." In the old days children were "babees" much longer than they are now, and when poems were addressed to "bele babees," or "sweet children," they were usually intended for school-boys or the youths brought up as pages or "gentlemen henchmen" in court or at great houses. "The Babees' Book," therefore, though you might despise it for its name, is really a "Little Report" of how young people should behave. I do not give it in verse, as it is written, because I find fifteenth-century English very hard to read, and I am sure you, too, would find it so.

"O young babees, adorned with every grace, this book is for you," says the writer, "and the only reward I seek is that it may please and improve you. It is to teach you how you who dwell in households should behave at meals, and how you should have only sweet, blessed, and benign words to answer when you are spoken to." Doesn't that sound just a little like Stevenson? And listen to what follows, and tell me if you have not heard much the same thing at home. When the "bele" or "fair babees" enter into the room, they must kneel on one knee to their lord. Of course no American babee would do that. But wait: they must look at any one who

speaks to them; they must not chatter or let their eyes wander, but answer sensibly and shortly; they must stand quietly and keep their heads, hands, and feet still. As I read this, I seem to hear a terrible voice out of the past crying out to me: "Don't wriggle!"

Other things that the babees were taught to do, children do no longer—more's the pity! If any one older came into the room, the babees gave place to him; if any one praised the babees, they rose up and thanked him heartily; and they were continually making bows and salutations that, I am convinced, cost them hours of torture in a politeness class of their own.

And now we come to the part we cannot understand so well. For the babees were bidden to be ready to serve at the proper time—to bring drinks, or hold lights, or anything else, and so get a good name! At noon, when the lord of the household was ready for his dinner, some babees poured out water for him, others held the towel, and all stood by him until he told them to sit down. And dinner over, again the babees came with water and towels.



A KNIGHT PLAYING THE HARP BEFORE THE QUEEN AND HER LADIES.

As for their behavior during the meal, once they had been allowed to sit down, they were told a great many things that "sweet children" are now expected to know without being told. They were to eat their broth with a spoon; they were not to lean on the table, not to put their knives in their mouths or their meat in the salt-cellar, not to keep all the good things for themselves, not to cut their meat like



field-laborers, who, it is explained, have such an appetite they don't care how they hack their food; they were to have clean plates and knives until they had washed. And the verses end with the pretty warning, "Sweet children, let your delight be courtesy, and avoid rudeness."



MEN AND A BOY WAITING AT A ROYAL BANQUET.

for their cheese, which seems no more than reasonable. They were not, another writer says, to throw meat bones under the table, which suggests that most unmannerly things did go on when no one was looking. I believe the "grown-ups" often needed the same advice, for you can read in history how the rushes which covered the floor instead of a carpet, in those days, were often strewn with bones and broken pieces from the table. At the end of the meal the babes were to clean and put away their knives! I washed my own knife, and my fork and spoon too, after meals, regularly

There are several of these poems, but in almost all the chief care is to teach the babes how to "behave mannerly at table," probably because at other times and in other places they kept out of the way of their lord and master, and there was less chance of his being disturbed. Occasionally the professor of manners reminded them that the courteous youth should get up betimes, bathe, go to church, say good morning to everybody; that he should be true in word and in deed, which again is like Stevenson; that he should keep his promises, never tell tales, and always mind



PAGES AND A MUSICIAN ATTENDING THE KING AT HIS DINNER.

for eleven years of my life; but then I was at boarding-school, while the "bele babes" were living in the finest palaces and castles in the land—which makes a difference! After the knife-cleaning, they were to sit in their places

his own business; that he should everywhere so conduct himself that men would say of him, "A gentleman was here." Occasionally there was a reminder that "sweet children" should walk demurely in the streets, and that they

shouldn't have their own way in everything. But, evidently, it was hoped that once young people had learned to behave themselves at table in the presence of their lord, all else would follow as a matter of course.

Children who stayed at home were no more at ease. A poem called "The School of Virtue" gives them careful directions how to set the table, serve the dinner, clear away, fold up the cloth, and, finally, bring basin, jug, and towels for their parents to wash; and then, all things done, to make a low curtsy. "Learn all the good manners you can," the poet adds, "for Aristotle, the philosopher, taught that manners in a child are better even than playing the fiddle!"

Now that you have seen how important "courtesy" was thought to be, perhaps you would like to know how the "bele babes" behaved—or misbehaved—when they paid no attention to their lessons in manners. I am afraid bad boys have always been the same since the world began. "Don't go bird's-nesting, or steal fruit, or throw stones at men's windows; keep away from fire and water, and the edge of wells and brooks," are a few of the warnings in an old "Lesson of Wisdom for all Children." There was a writer called Lydgate, who lived just about the time some of these books of curtesie were composed, and who wrote a poem, confessing his wickedness as a boy, that gives us a better idea of what went on even then. Lydgate, it seems, was not sent to a noble's house, but was brought up by the monks and went to one of their schools. He says that until he was fifteen he loved no work but play; I think I have heard of boys to-day who have exactly his tastes in the matter. He was afraid of the rod, naturally, for it was never spared when he was a child. Little girls were then taught to look upon "sharp and severe parents" as the greatest benefit they could receive, and there is the record of one, Elizabeth Paston by name, who was beaten once or twice a week, sometimes twice a day, and on one occasion had her head broken in two or three places. Poor little thing! If this is the way the girls were treated, you can imagine the fate of the boys.

But, fear the rod as he might, Lydgate was still late at school; he talked when he ought to have been studying; he told stories to get out of scrapes; he made fun of his masters; he stole apples and grapes; oh, dear! oh, dear!—he liked counting cherry-stones better than church; he wouldn't get up in the morning; he wouldn't wash his hands before dinner; he pretended to be ill when he wasn't; he never thought of anybody when there was question of his own pleasure; and, altogether, he was about as bad a boy as could be found from one end of England to the other. I don't believe our old friend Frederick, who did so many naughty things in the nursery rhyme, was one bit worse. But, that bad boys may take heart and know that there is hope, I must add that Lydgate grew up to be a great man, whose reputation has lasted to our day, and that he wrote many poems, among them this confession of the apple-stealing and truant-playing of his school-days.

There is another poem by an unfortunate little "Birched School-boy," who sang sadly of the birch-twigs that were so sharp. Think of making a song out of your whippings! I do not doubt for a moment that he got only what he deserved, but I can't help feeling sorry for him, he is so plaintive. "Hay, hay!" he begins, "I'd sooner go twenty miles than to school on Monday!" But then, when a boy is late for school, and, asked by his master where he has been, answers, "Milking ducks," what can he look for in return for his impertinence but a good "peppering" of one kind or another?

It was all very well for this little fifteenth-century truant to sigh, and wish his master was a hare, and his own book a wild-cat, and all the school-books hounds, when "to blow my horn I would not spare!" But he knew perfectly well, if he went his twenty miles, what would be waiting for him afterward.

It was for just such bad boys that *babees'* books and books of curtesie were written, and let us hope that Lydgate was not the only "sweet child" to profit by them—and by the birch-twigs—and to grow up to be famous.

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THIS is not a chronicle of an infant phenomenon, but just a true story of a bishop, and a boy whose life was largely molded by the following incident.

The oaks of England have always been celebrated, and I know of no finer sight than an ancient grove still in its prime, growing in a sunny glade of Richmond Park. One characteristic of this forest, and I can recall a score of them, is that each individual tree seems to have had a chance. It has all the room it wants to spread sidewise, stretches its great arms wide, its feet strike deep into the rich loam, and its proud head rises toward the sky, without let or hindrance, so that each is perfect in form, after its kind.

With youthful presumption and vanity (for I was just twelve, I remember), I had been wrestling with one of these monarchs of the forest, among the most difficult objects in nature to portray. I find with all my years of practise, the foreshortening of the branch of a tree often brings me up standing, but nothing daunts youthful impudence. My tools were a home-made easel, the cheapest kind of color-box to be bought in the toy-shop of a small English town, and brushes of the limpest. I had been engaged in this important work of art for three half-holidays (Wednesday and Saturday afternoon school did not then "keep" in England). I had been try-

ing to get every detail of trunk, bark, leaf, and branch. Bad as it all probably was, the careful study that I made of that oak-tree helped me my life through.

And, by the way, there is among the studies sold for the art schools of England, the reproduction of a pencil-drawing of a lemon tree, made in Sicily by Sir Frederick Leighton. It was the work of many days. In his lectures at South Kensington to young art students (where the original drawing is), he used to tell how many hours he spent upon it. Truly, it is a wonderful study. Every foreshortened branch and leaf, the markings and blemishes of the same, a perfect representation of a lemon tree. I heard him say in one of his talks: "I suppose many of you students in this day of impression look upon this elaborate drawing as a waste of time. I, on the contrary, think it time well spent, for when finished I felt sure I knew something, I may say, all, about a lemon tree, which has proved of life-long value to me in my finished pictures."

I recall this talk of Sir Frederick Leighton's to encourage the numerous young artists whose work I see from time to time in magazines, enforcing careful conscientious drawing from nature to acquire skill in rendering; appreciation of good form and color; and to gather material for design. To compare small things with great, this careful study when I was a boy, brought



knowledge and love of the oak-tree that have never deserted me.

Up to the moment I relate, I had been quite free from molestation; my chosen subject was so far from the public road that I felt quite safe; moreover, only my head and the top of my easel were visible from the highway. The whole glade was filled with an under forest of tall bracken (the giant fern, *Pteris aquilina*). Lying down on one's face in the miniature forest was a sensation. It was full of little sunny glades between the stems of the sturdy ferns, populated by all the little people of the ground: mice, beetles, ants, and other small things. It was a popular belief among the boys that in one of those thousands of bracken-stems you would find your name; if you cut them diagonally near the ground you would see a black marking very like a signature, or at any rate a monogram. The singular part of it is that no two of them are alike, and sometimes something near enough to an initial will turn up for an imaginative boy.

My only audience had been the tame fallow deer of the park. They had become so used to my presence and fixedness that they evidently began to look upon me as a natural product of the grove, and they grew so bold in their inquisitiveness that more than once I felt their breath upon the back of my neck.

As I said, up to this moment for three whole afternoons all of nature had been my own. Many vehicles passed along the distant drive; none, however, came my way, and I rejoiced in my security, but, like earthquakes that come without warning, my destiny was on the road. A gorgeous carriage and pair with clanking head-chains pulled up at the nearest curve, and a tall, handsome, clerical-looking gentleman came wading through the bracken. He greeted me cordially with a merry laugh and said: "I could not resist the temptation of seeing what the youthful artist was up to." I wanted to sink into the ground, but his cheery encouragement and praise made me feel more at ease, until he beckoned a lady to follow him. They asked my name and age, where I lived, and with a waving, cordial good-by they were away to their carriage. I don't know that as a boy I felt any particular sensation from the little visit, but it proved a turning-point in my life.

At the next sitting this great work of art was finished, and when I reached home, the first thing my father said to me was: "Whom do you know in town to send you packages by the London Parcels Delivery Company? Here is something that arrived five minutes ago." Imagine my delight on opening it to find a real grown-up artist's

color-box, a half-dozen silver-mounted brushes, and under the brushes a card inscribed "With the best wishes of George Augustus Selwyn, Bishop of New Zealand." Up to that day my education had all pointed toward the life of a merchant, but the bishop was my destiny, though his living on the other side of the globe prevented us from meeting again in this world. What he gave me was to him only a color-box. To me it was a heaven-sent sign, as a symbol of sacred interest in my welfare. In my home I was only a little chap who liked to amuse himself with paints. After the bishop laid his hands upon me I felt myself dedicated to the work of transcribing the beauties of the world.

However, that is not quite the end of the story. Some years ago while sketching in England I was overtaken by a bad spell of weather; day after day a steady downpour; but fortunately everything is packed away closely in "The tight little island." There half an hour in the train will always bear you to something worth seeing. On this particular day, fifty minutes carried me to the quaint old cathedral city of Lichfield. The ancient borough has now become a place of pilgrimage for Americans, although it is a little out of the beaten track. After seeing everything of interest in the minster, as I thought, I breasted the rain-storm on my way to the railroad and had gone some distance from the cathedral when the good old verger came running after me. His black gown flying wildly in the wind, he carried me back to show me a great piece of work by Foley, the celebrated English sculptor. "I want you to see this," the panting verger said; "you know we call him our handsome bishop." And truly it was a beautiful face reposing in its calm sleep of death; but imagine my surprise to read amid lines of Latin eulogy the name of my friend "George Augustus Selwyn, Bishop of New Zealand and nineteenth Bishop of Lichfield." There lay the helpful friend of my youth,—his dear face that I never expected to see again, restored to me in the sculptor's marble, after the lapse of half a century.

One little incident that the good old verger told me I must pass on: Two Maori chiefs visited England a year or two ago and made straight for Lichfield Cathedral. Happening to meet my verger, they inquired for the resting-place of the good bishop. He conducted them to the tomb, where they immediately fell on their knees. The verger left them to their reverent devotion. An hour later he thought it time to look them up. They were still on their knees. Who shall say how many kindly acts of the good bishop had inspired these semisavages to this devotion!





THE CROMWELL HOUSE AT STUNTNEY.

## WHEN CROMWELL WAS A BOY

BY ERNEST C. PEIXOTTO

WITH ILLUSTRATIONS BY THE AUTHOR

THE older readers of this volume will remember from their histories, the great figure of Oliver Cromwell, who did so much toward giving England her most prized liberties, and eventually became Lord Protector of the Commonwealth, and perhaps the greatest personage of his time. I feel certain that these readers will be interested to hear something of Cromwell's boyhood, and the places where he lived when a lad.

About seventy miles due north of London, on what used to be called the Great North Road—

old town of Huntingdon. For centuries it has been a prosperous county-seat, and in its day possessed a castle fortified by William the Conqueror, and boasted no less than seventeen churches and monasteries. These latter, however, disappeared when Henry VIII. dissolved the religious orders in England—all except one which the King bestowed upon one of his trusty subjects, one Richard Cromwell, of whom the King was very fond.

Richard's son, called from his love of display the Golden Knight, inherited this monastery



HINCHINBROOK MANOR, WHERE CROMWELL'S UNCLE RECEIVED KING JAMES.

the main thoroughfare of England's east coast and on its site built a lordly mansion, Hinchinbrook Manor, still standing, as here pictured, in from the metropolis to Edinburgh—lies the good

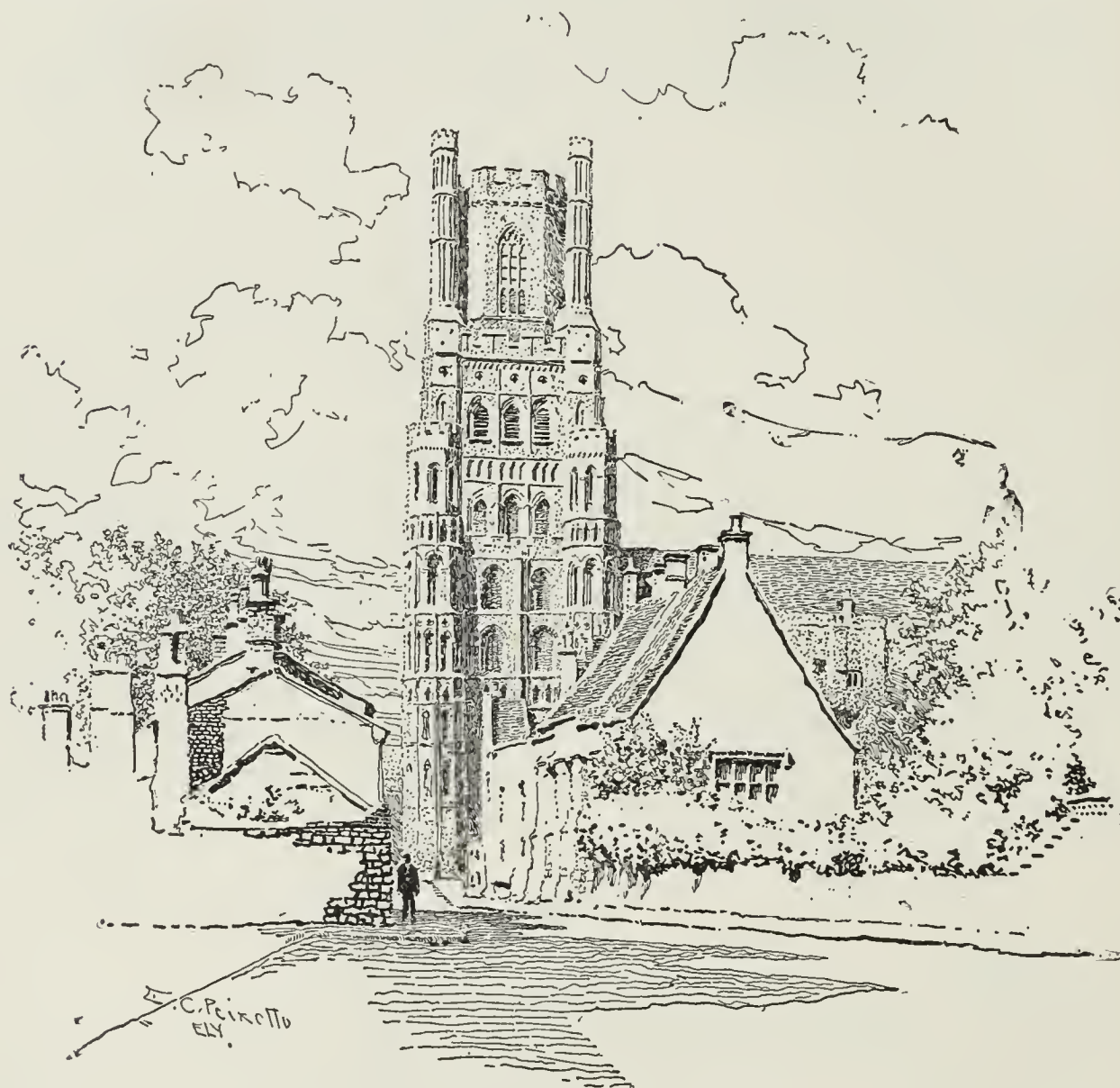
all the glory of its towers, battlements and oriel windows above the valley of the River Ouse.

This Golden Knight had a younger brother, Robert Cromwell, who lived down in the town of Huntingdon in "Cromwell House," a spacious place with extensive lands.

Robert married a worthy dame, who, as one of the Stuntney Stewarts, joined to his estates

record of the birth of this "greatest and most typical Englishman of all time"—a sense of awe, however, that changes to amusement when one deciphers above the entry, written by some visitor: "England's plague for years." And this sentence, in turn, has been crossed out by some later traveler who evidently was loyal to Cromwell.

Oliver's birthplace, "Cromwell House," is to-



THE WEST TOWER OF ELY CATHEDRAL.

the fine old brick farmhouse that appears in the drawing at the head of this article.

They were blessed with a large family, and in 1599, on the 25th of April, the fifth of their nine children was born, a boy named Oliver after his uncle.

At the top of the parish register page of All Saints Church at Huntingdon, is the record of this event, and it is with a certain sense of awe that one fingers the yellowing paper covered with faded Gothic letters, and reads the simple

day supplanted by a more modern structure, standing rather removed from the little town at the end of a twisting lane. As we peep through the iron gate, we feel sure that the general aspect is not so different from what it was some centuries ago: an ample, square house, with windows opening to the ground, through which the children could step out on the smooth English lawn shaded by oaks and fir-trees.

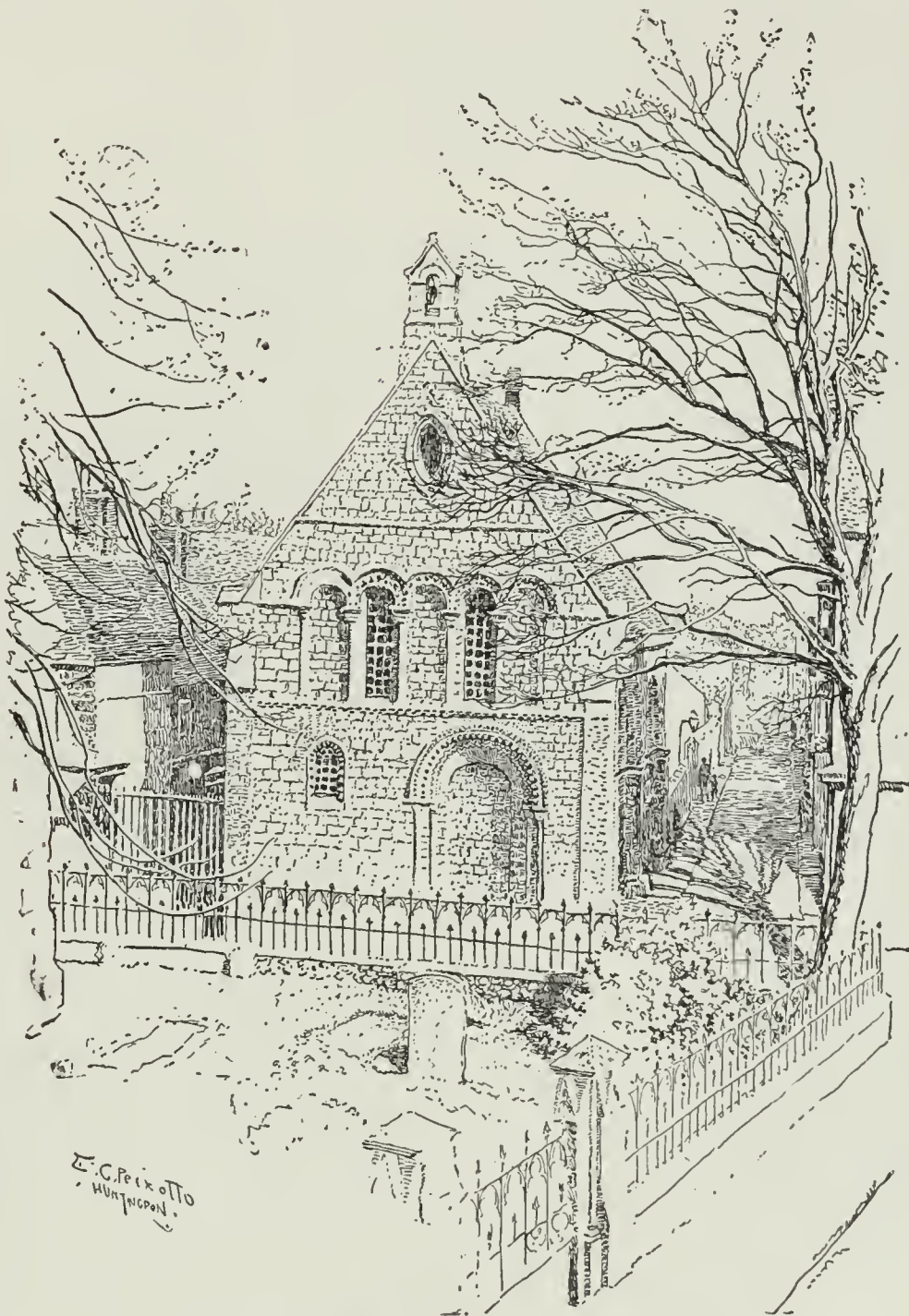
Here little Oliver grew up with his eight brothers and sisters.



The second day following his fourth birthday was a great day for Huntingdon, and a greater day still for the Cromwell family. Up on the hill at Hinchinbrook Manor, where Oliver's uncle lived, all was in a turmoil; the best linen was brought out; the pewter and silver polished to its brightest luster; cooks and scullions fumed in the kitchen; lackeys and maids scurried through corridor and hall, for there was to be a guest that night, and such a guest!—no less a personage than James VI. of Scotland on his triumphal progress from Edinburgh to London to succeed Queen Elizabeth, and to found the ill-fated house of Stuart as James I. of England. And when the august presence arrived, what a clatter in the courts as the heavy coach-wheels rolled over the paving stones! What a stamping of hoofs and neighing of steeds! What low obeisances, and what a sumptuous dinner—a table groaning under loads of silver and smoking viands!

Oliver's father, brother of the host, was much occupied we may be sure, as was his mother, too. So can we not picture our four-year-old boy, on his sturdy little legs, wandering about with his brothers and sisters under the guidance of a nursery-maid, his gray eyes wide, his mouth agape at all the goings-on? Can we not picture him staring at the young princes—at little Henry, Prince of Wales, who was to die scarce nine years later, and leave his brother Charles heir to the throne of England? Between Oliver and this same Charles, there was but a year's difference in age, and one cannot help wondering, in thinking of these two children face to face, if any thoughts but child-thoughts crowded Oliver's little brain; any inkling that one day he would wrest the crown of England from this same weak prince, and him-

self sit in the highest seat, be Lord Protector of the Commonwealth, the greatest man not only in England, but in all Europe! Next day King James went on, to sit upon his throne in Whitehall; and Oliver grew up, not—as some writers



THE OLD GRAMMAR-SCHOOL AT HUNTINGDON.

would have us believe—in a country village, shut off from the active life of the day, but in a thriving town, only twelve hours' journey from the metropolis, and on the great highway between London and Edinburgh.

In the courtyard of the "George" (then much as it remains to-day) he might have seen the stages each day bring in their loads of people,



and his father, who had been in Parliament, receive the news of the hour.

Soon the boy was put in the grammar-school under the tutelage of one Dr. Beard; and the teachings of this worthy master, a great friend of Richard Cromwell's, must have left an indelible imprint upon the lad's character. He seems to have conquered a lasting affection in his pupil's heart, for all through Cromwell's career, the two men remained in close touch.

The old grammar-school stands to-day, quite as it looked in Cromwell's time.

Toward the end of the last century it was discovered that the front of the building was only

When Oliver was fourteen there was another royal progress through the town; but this time attended with no banquets, no festivities, only with a mournful pomp. James had ordered the body of his mother, Mary, Queen of Scots, to be brought from Peterborough Cathedral down to London to its final resting-place in Westminster Abbey, and on its way it rested over night in All Saints Church. Surely Oliver was gaping in the crowd.

He was now growing up, and at home absorbed ideas and formed his character from the talks he overheard. Three of his uncles had been in Parliament, his father also; Dr. Beard was



THE RIVER OUSE AT ST. IVES.

a shell, hiding a much more ancient structure. Under the direction of an able architect, the building was then restored to its old-time form. The expense of the work was borne by a distinguished playwright in memory of his son, who had been killed in a railway accident near by.

So now the quaint schoolhouse turns its battered Norman façade, its queer old gable and bell-cote toward All Saints churchyard.

As we sat in the whitewashed schoolroom, and wandered in the dormitory with its prim, snowy beds; or as, at luncheon, we shared the headmaster's table and watched the boys relishing their curdled plum tart; or as we sipped our tea by the tennis-court in the long afternoon shadows—that boyish figure with the great gray eyes, with the nose a bit to one side, with the broad square head and the manly figure, constantly hovered around us: strong, fond of his outdoor sport, and wilful, as they say he was.

He fits, too, into the landscapes by the Ouse—with its fishing, swimming, boating and visiting the country fairs.

thoroughly abreast of the times and they all discussed every phase of daily events, of the "despotism" of the King and the persecution of the Puritans.

Just two days before his seventeenth birthday, the lad went to Cambridge, a few miles away, and was enrolled a member of Sidney Sussex College.

Cromwell's college career was short-lived, cut off after the first year by the death of his father. The lad hurried home to the funeral of his parent, who was buried beside the Golden Knight.

Oliver at eighteen was now the head of his branch of the house, with a widowed mother and six sisters more or less dependent upon him, so it behooved him to fit himself as quickly as possible for a career. He accordingly went to London to gain a general knowledge of the law. His cares do not seem to have weighed too heavily upon him, for two years later he undertook new responsibilities by marrying, in Cripplegate church, Miss Elizabeth Bouchier.

Bride and groom went back to Huntingdon to live, as is supposed, with his mother. Then for



nearly ten years history gives us no picture of him but it is easy to imagine him well occupied with his duties; with farming his lands; with yeomanry drills in which he took a vital interest, as his uncle and grandfather had before him.

In 1628 Cromwell was elected to Parliament. In his very first speech, he quoted his old schoolmaster, Dr. Beard.

But now Cromwell's great public career began, and we can hardly follow him within the

limits of this article. His youth was about ended. He sold his portion of his father's estate to remove to St. Ives, and later to Ely where he lived but a few steps from the grand old cathedral. The year 1638 found him father of nine children, five boys and four girls, and a very few years later, this "Lord of the Fens" was raising his famous Ironsides, and the great civil war of England between the Roundheads on one side and the Cavaliers on the other had begun.



HASTINGS CASTLE

The picturesque ruins of Hastings Castle comprise the remains of a square and circular tower, standing on the brink of a western cliff on the southern coast of England. Hastings Castle was probably built soon after the days of William the Conqueror.

# A YOUNG BREADWINNER

BY FRANCES W. MARSHALL

ONE cannot be a lawyer and a poet at the same time—at least, so thought a young Englishman named Lawrence a good many years ago, and so, though he had been bred to the practice of law, when he became of age and the master of a small inheritance left him at his father's death, he turned his back on his profession and determined to be a poet instead. But, alas! history saith not how very, very many have intended to be poets, but only tells us how few have become such, and the name of Lawrence is not to be found among them. He mistook the wish for the ability. The poetic thoughts, when committed to paper, added nothing to his income, and when, after four years of this delightful existence, he began to see the bottom of his purse, and at about the same time fell in love with the daughter of a clergyman in the neighborhood and married her, he realized that some more remunerative means of livelihood had to be found.

So he obtained first one, then a second, small government position. But when he lost his second post, he took a small inn in Bristol, called the White Hart, thinking, perhaps, that the landlord's business of making himself agreeable to his patrons might offer an easy sort of life. To show his intelligence and taste, he fitted up a library for the benefit of his guests, and hung engravings of the great masters on his walls, instead of the gaudy pictures usually found in inns of the period. Here, on May 4, 1769, a son named Thomas was born, one of sixteen children, of whom only five outlived their childhood.

When little Thomas was three years old Mr. Lawrence took his family to Devizes and there became landlord of the Black Bear, an establishment of a much better class than the White Hart had been, for it was the best inn in the town and was patronized by all the wealthy, notable, and fashionable people who came down from London and made it a stopping-place on their way to Bath, the famous watering-place, which lay twenty miles beyond.

Little Thomas, as he ran about the house, attracted the attention of the visitors by his unusual beauty and precocity, and his father, finding him wonderfully apt, taught him to repeat some of the verses he himself loved so well. By the time the child was five years old it was his father's greatest pleasure to stand him on a table and bid him, for the amusement of his guests, repeat passages

from Milton and Shakspeare, which he would do so intelligently that the fine ladies and gentlemen who heard him were delighted.

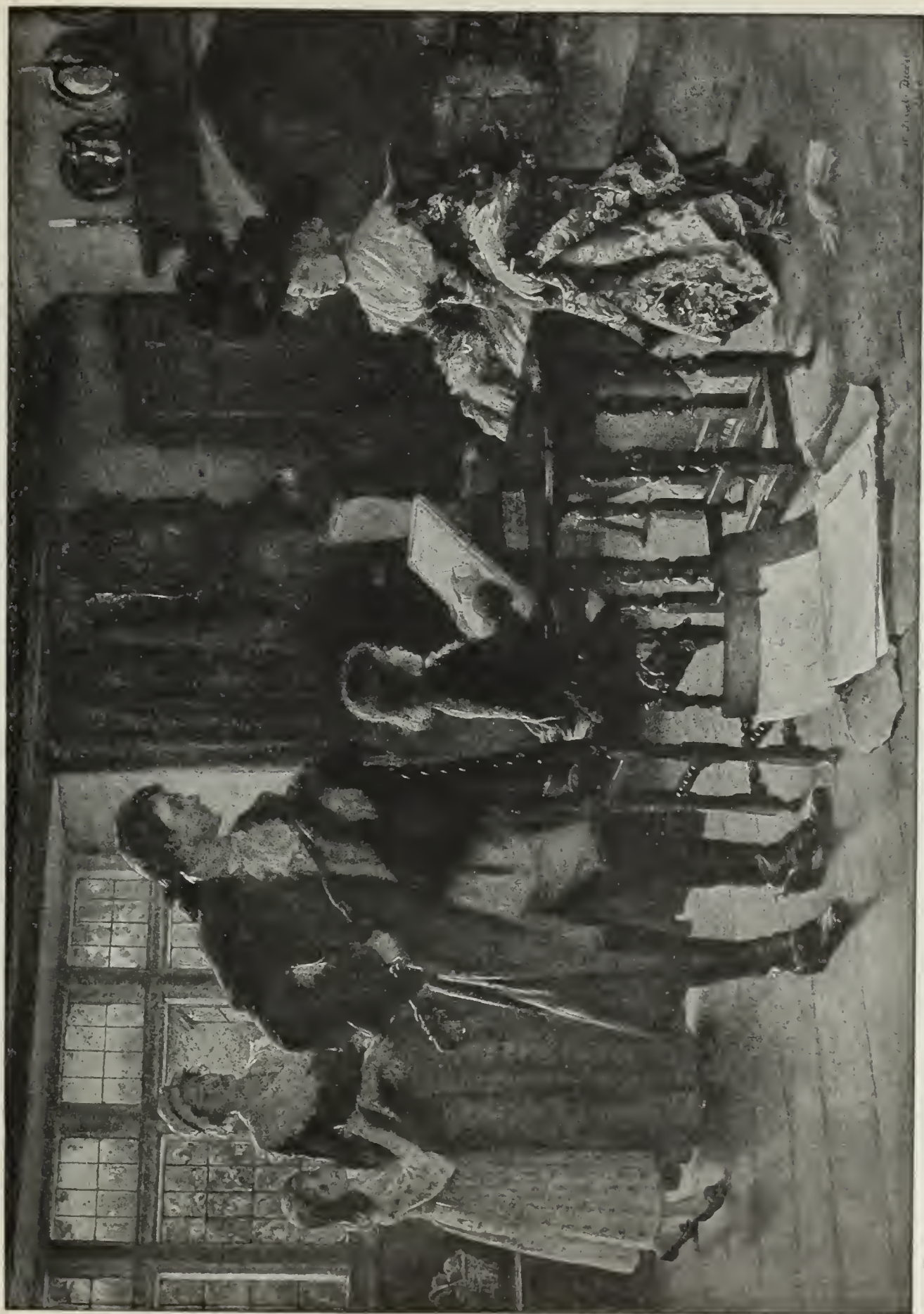
But the little fellow had another accomplishment even more remarkable—a knack at drawing portraits. Where he acquired it no one knew, for he was never taught; it seemed to come without thought or effort. The elder Lawrence was so proud of his wonderful boy that he was continually singing his praises, in season and out of season. An occurrence of this kind is described by Thomas Lawrence's biographer, Williams, on the authority of Mrs. Kenyon herself:

"Mr. and Mrs. Kenyon [in 1775] arrived late at the Black Bear, tired and out of humor, when Lawrence entered and proposed to show them his wonderful child. They were about to refuse, when the child rushed in, and Mrs. Kenyon's vexation was turned to admiration. He was riding on a stick and went round and round the room. Mrs. Kenyon, as soon as she could get him to stand still, asked him if he could take the likeness of that gentleman, pointing to her husband. 'That I can,' said the little Lawrence, 'and very like, too.' A high chair was placed at the table, pencils and paper were brought, and the infant artist soon produced an astonishingly striking likeness. Mr. Kenyon now coaxed the child, who had got tired by the half-hour's labor, and asked him if he could take the likeness of the lady. 'Yes, that I can,' was his reply once more, 'if she will turn her side to me, for her face is not straight.' His remark produced a laugh, as it happened to be true."

Long years ago the Black Bear disappeared from Devizes, but the charming picture by Margaret Dicksee, which we are privileged to reproduce, has recreated one of its rooms and made it the setting for a scene that must have been many times repeated—the small artist intent upon seizing the likeness of the lovely sitter (of whom he certainly cannot complain that her face is not "straight"), the young man in riding-dress behind the chair, dividing his attention between the portrait and the original, whom he doubtless thinks the prettiest girl in the world, while in the background stand mother and sister, full of pride in the wonderful little son and brother, and serenely certain of his success.

David Garrick and his wife used to pass through Devizes every year on their way to and from Bath, and it was part of the program that





From a painting by Margaret Dicksee. Copyright, 1901, by Photographische Gesellschaft.

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# THE FIRST COMMISSION. SIR THOMAS LAWRENCE AS A BOY.

the little Lawrence should recite his new "pieces" for them and show them such of his portraits as the sitters had not carried away with them, and we are told of one particular occasion when Garrick said, as he patted the curly head: "Bravely done, Tommy! Whether will ye be, a painter or a player, eh?"

The famous Mrs. Siddons sat for the young artist; Sheridan, Dr. Johnson, and Burke marveled at his precocity; and the belles and beaux applauded and petted him enough to turn the head of any child with a spark of vanity. But, oddly enough, the gifted little fellow, in spite of all this flattering attention, did not grow forward or self-conscious, while his bright, sunny temper, his beauty, and the pretty courtliness of his manners—caught, perhaps, from the passing guests of the Black Bear—made him a host of friends who spread the fame of the wonderful little Tommy Lawrence.

Few of us are so embarrassed with talents as to render the choice of a career difficult for that reason, but Thomas was one of the few, for success seemed certain in two directions. When he was eight or nine years old, however, he was taken to see a famous collection of pictures by the old masters, probably the first great paintings he had ever seen. He stood absorbed before one by Rubens, and as he finally turned away said, with a deep sigh: "I shall never be able to paint like that." But nevertheless he then and there decided to be a painter.

Not long after this the Lawrences moved to Oxford, where the father's occupation was apparently that of business manager for his clever little boy—an occupation even more congenial than that of keeping an inn. From this time Tommy seems to have been the main support of the family, rather a heavy burden for a pair of ten-year-old shoulders, although about this time

his eldest brother and sister, having completed their education, found positions and contributed regularly to the family income.

Before leaving Devizes Tommy had been allowed to attend school for two years, and this was all the education he ever received at his parents' hands. His clever fingers must be always busy in order that father, mother, brothers,



Formerly owned by Mr. Joseph Jefferson.

"CHILDREN PLAYING."

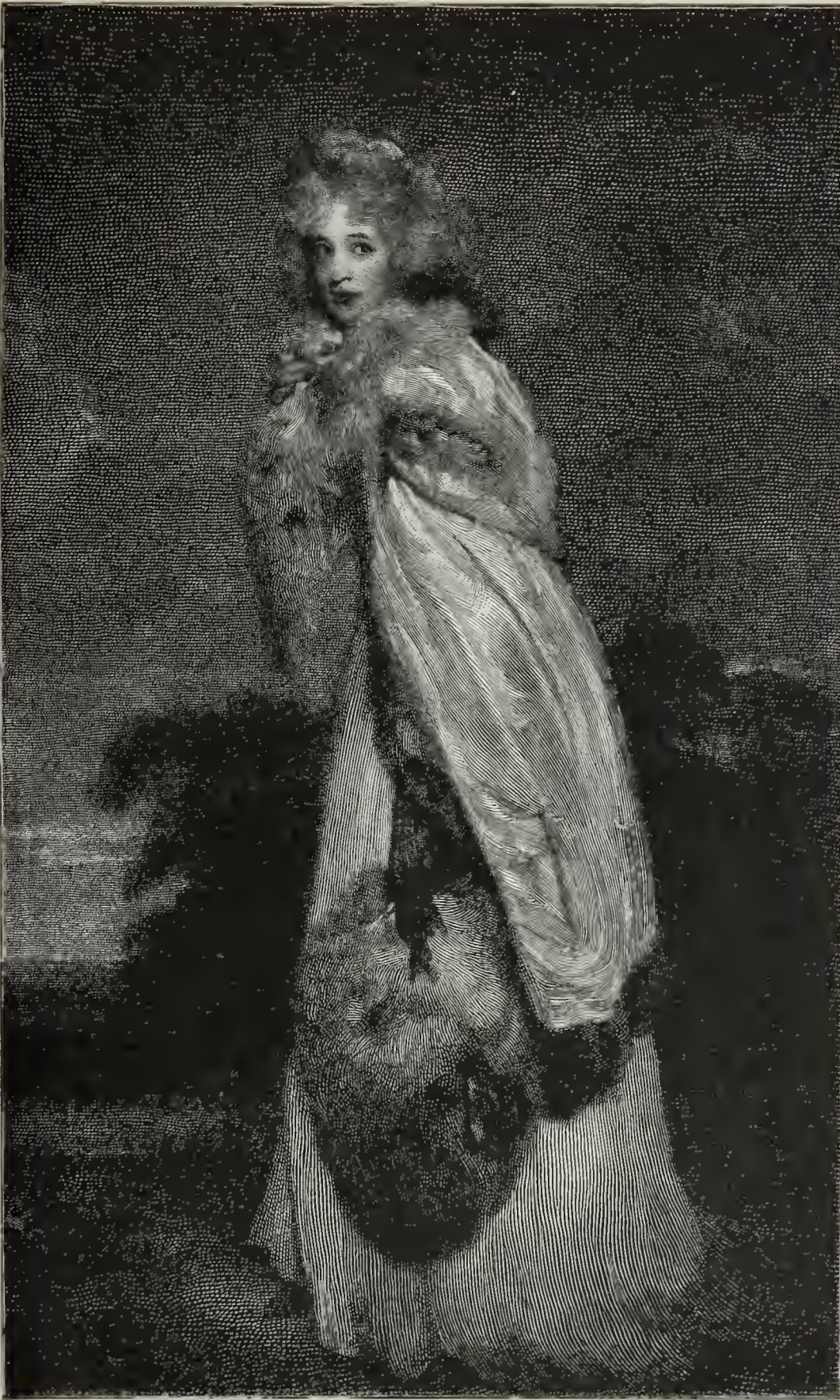
FROM A PAINTING BY SIR THOMAS LAWRENCE.

and sisters might live in comfort, and he helped his brothers to obtain the education that he might not have himself, one of them becoming a major in the English army and the other a clergyman.

On one occasion a wealthy baronet who had become interested in the lad offered to give a thousand pounds toward his art education; but Tommy could not be spared, and his father declined the proposal.

But it must not be thought that Tommy for a moment felt himself ill-used, for he was happy in





From the painting owned by Lord de Grey Wilton.

LADY DERBY (MISS FARREN). BY SIR THOMAS LAWRENCE.

quest of sitters, he was a little personage, admitted into the most exclusive circles. His portraits of Mrs. Siddons and Admiral Barrington, made at this time, were engraved and widely sold, and Georgiana, the beautiful Duchess of Devonshire, was also his patroness. His pastel portrait of her is now in Chiswick House, the property of the present Duke of Devonshire.

The family life of the Lawrences seems to have been a very happy one; Tommy was a devoted son and brother, while he was the love and pride of all. His father would sit and read aloud to him while he worked, and it was his mother's chief care to keep her handsome boy freshly and becomingly dressed. The admirers of Thomas Lawrence, however, must always regret that he was not allowed to study the great masters of painting while he was still young, for when, in later life, he visited Italy and enjoyed that privilege, the effect on his work was marked, and he himself felt, as was the case, that the portraits he then painted far surpassed in breadth and quality all his previous canvases.

At last, in 1787, when Thomas was eighteen, the time came when he felt he must try to

being allowed to do the work he loved. His studio in Oxford was the resort of admirals, bishops, lords and ladies, statesmen and scholars; while at Bath, whither he went in the season in

make a place for himself in a larger world than that of Oxford and Bath, and he set his face toward London, whither he went accompanied by his father. This step had evidently been planned for



a long time, for they had put aside sufficient money from his earnings to permit them to engage rooms in a good quarter of the city, not far from the house of Sir Joshua Reynolds, then an old man. Young Lawrence soon called upon him, showed him his work, and waited, trembling, for the verdict of the great master. Reynolds at once saw the unusual quality of the work, gave the young artist the benefit of his criticism, and became his kind friend and adviser.

Until this time Lawrence had drawn only in crayon or pastel, but he now began to study at the Royal Academy, working in oil, and so far from thinking, as his remarkable success might have led him to do, that he knew about as much as was necessary, he applied himself with unwearying patience and perseverance. He had the love and capacity for work in an unusual degree: from his tenth year until his death at sixty-one he labored almost without interruption, seizing every opportunity for study, even after he became president of the Royal Academy. On one occasion he became so absorbed that he stood before his easel painting for forty-eight hours practically without rest or interruption.

Almost immediately on arriving in London, Lawrence found patrons, and doubtless his way was made easier by the fact that he was singularly attractive personally, with a slight, erect figure, a handsome face framed in long, curling brown hair, and unusual grace. It was said of him in later years that if it had been his business to drive flocks of geese to London, he would have done even that gracefully.

At first he charged three guineas each for portraits, and made three or four a week; but when, at twenty, he painted the lovely portrait of Miss Farren, Lady Derby, and he found himself the fashionable painter of London, he regularly received thirty guineas for a head and one hundred and twenty for a full-length portrait. Twenty years later he received three times these rates.

He had for his patron the King himself, George III, who in 1792 appointed him "Painter in Ordinary to his Majesty," and who insisted that the artist should be admitted at once to the Royal Academy, although at the time he had not yet attained the necessary age. So the rules of that



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PRINCESS CHARLOTTE.

FROM THE PAINTING BY SIR THOMAS LAWRENCE, AT WINDSOR CASTLE.

institution were changed to permit him to become an "associate" member, which satisfied the King.

With all these honors crowding fast upon him, Lawrence's good common sense never deserted him, and he carried himself with so much modesty and tact that he escaped much of the envy and jealousy that too often come with success. He was generous, too, to a fault, and not only continued to provide for his parents, but gave freely to every needy brother artist, or to any one else whose distresses were brought to his knowledge. And so, though he earned a great deal all his life, he was always in need of money, not



for his own wants, for they were not extravagant, but for those of others who appealed to him.



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LADY HARRIET HAMILTON AS A CHILD.  
FROM THE PAINTING BY SIR THOMAS LAWRENCE.

came in his way; and he had a real affection for his own pets and those of his friends. He had a fine cat, of which he was very fond, and a certain spaniel, belonging to a friend, was his special favorite. He put this dog into one of his best-known portraits, and whenever he dined with its master he always had a chair set beside him for the dog, whom he laughingly called his "patron," and would say, as he patted it on the head or smoothed its silky coat: "I hope I have made you live at least a hundred years."

Some of the most notable of Lawrence's paintings are portraits of children, in whose soft curves and fresh color he delighted, while his quick sympathies and understanding enabled him to win the confidence and affection of his little sitters. And many of his child-portraits are familiar pictures to-day, through copies and engravings of them that are treasured on the walls of thousands of homes both in England and America. Of his portraits of older people it was said that he always made his men look brave and his women beautiful.

In 1815 Lawrence was knighted and became Sir Thomas Lawrence; in 1819 he was elected president of the Royal Academy, and held the post until his death in 1830. He was buried in St. Paul's Cathedral, beside his friend and master, Sir Joshua Reynolds.

He was kind and gentle always, not only to human beings, but to all the dumb creatures that





# CURIOUS STORIES FROM HISTORY

## HOW TIME IS MADE

BY CLIFFORD HOWARD

It has taken old Father Time a long while to get the world into good, regular running order as it is to-day. For many hundreds of years people had very strange and uncertain ways of telling time, for they did not have any clocks or watches to mark the hours. In fact, they did not even know anything about hours or minutes, but reckoned time merely by days and months and years, although they never could agree when the day began. Some said it began at sunrise and others thought it began when the sun set, while some said it did not begin until midnight and still others were sure it began at noon.

Well, after the world had gone on for a long while with its days, months, and years, the day and night were finally each divided into twelve parts, or hours. It mattered not how long or how short the daylight part was, it was divided into twelve hours just the same, for the hours were lengthened or shortened to suit the length of the day in the various seasons of the year. In some of the long summer days each hour had seventy-five minutes, while in the short winter days, when the hours had to be crowded so as to get them all in between sunrise and sunset, each hour had only forty-four minutes.

These hours were measured by sun-dials and hour-glasses and candles and other curious time-pieces, which were about as changeable and uncertain as the hours themselves. Of course when clocks were invented such things went out of use, for clocks were so much more accurate and reliable, and would keep on recording without having to be watched all the time to see that they did not stop or run out.

At first clocks were crude affairs, and were not much to be relied upon. They could not well be made for house use, and were chiefly placed in the towers of churches and town halls. Each morning and evening the clock bell would

ring at a certain hour, so that all within sound of its deep note could keep track of the time, and, if they were fortunate enough to have a clock at home, could set it to agree with the town clock, which was more likely to be correct than their own. But now Uncle Sam does a similar service for the people all over this great country by sending at noon each day an electric signal which enables them to set and regulate their clocks and watches. The work is done by officers and clerks in the United States Naval Observatory at Washington, where they make careful calculations and look after the great clocks that regulate the time of the country. Some of the college observatories also furnish several portions of the country with standard time much in the same way as does the Naval Observatory.

Until a few years ago each town and city had its own time, for, as you know, time is reckoned by what are known as meridians of longitude—imaginary lines running north and south on the earth's surface. You all remember these lines running up and down across the maps in your geographies. Now when the sun is directly over one of these lines it is noon at all places that happen to be on that meridian, but of course places lying east and west of this would each have a different meridian and therefore a different time.

This was good enough before the days of the railroad and the telegraph, but now it would be a tremendous bother if each place were to use its own local time, and so we make use of a system called standard or railway time.

According to this plan the country is divided in such a way that there are only four different times in the entire United States, each exactly an hour different from that of the adjoining divisions. Thus when it is twelve o'clock at New York it is eleven o'clock at Chicago, ten o'clock at Denver, and nine o'clock at San



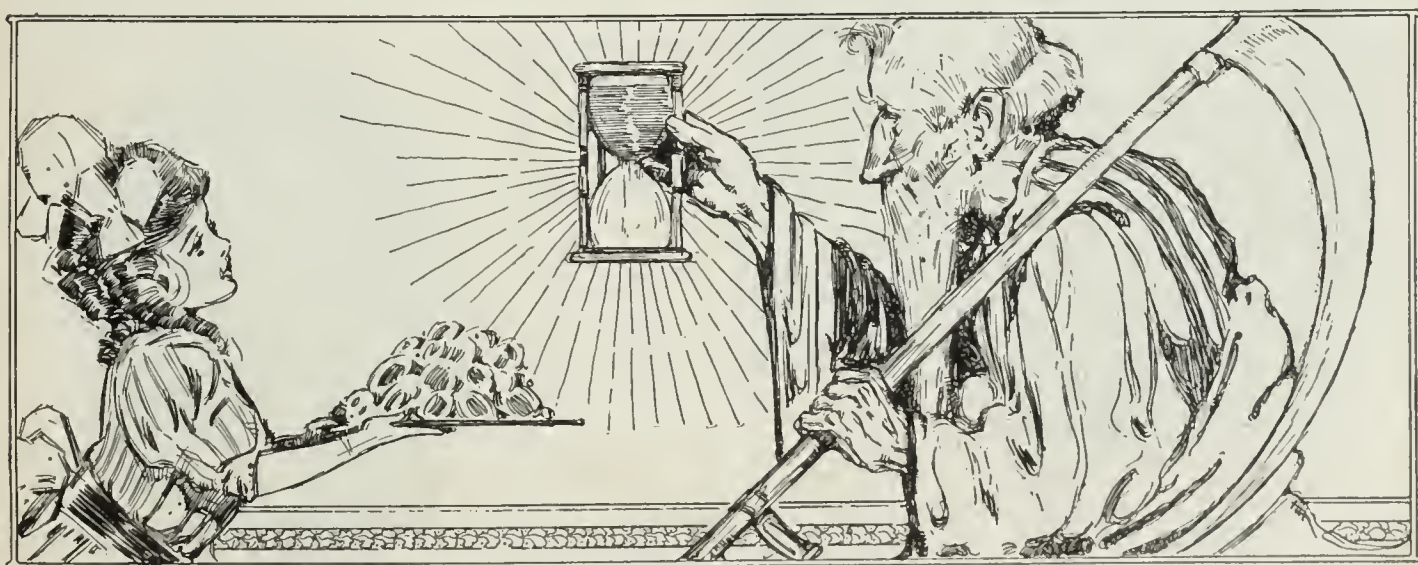
Francisco. These different standards are called Eastern Time, Central Time, Mountain Time, and Pacific Time, and the time of all places in any one of these divisions is precisely the same, no matter what their local time may be.

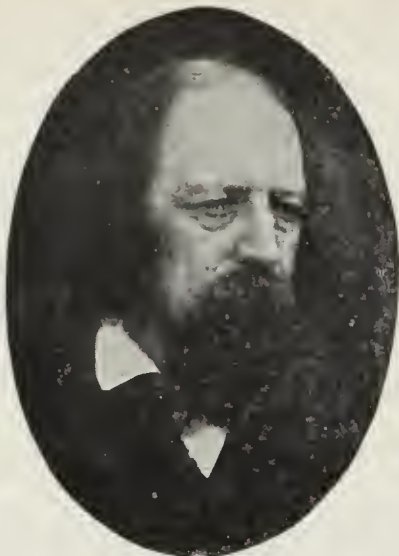
In Europe some of the countries calculate their time from the meridian that passes through Greenwich in England, but the United States calculates from the meridian that is seventy-five degrees west of Greenwich. When the sun is directly over this meridian, it is said to be noon at Washington, Philadelphia, New York, Boston, and all other towns and cities in the Eastern division.

Strange as it may seem, Uncle Sam does not make use of the sun for reckoning time, but he turns his attention to some of the regular steady-going stars, or "fixed stars," as they are called. Every clear night an astronomer with a big telescope looks at certain of these stars and makes his calculations, from which he can tell just when the sun would cross the seventy-fifth meridian. One of the great clocks in the observatory is called the transmitter, because it transmits or sends out the signal that keeps standard time. This clock is set and regulated by the star-time, and then every day at three minutes and fifteen seconds before twelve a switch is turned on and the beats of the pendulum of this clock are sent by electricity over the wires to the telegraph offices in Washington and New York.

When the telegraph operators hear this sound on their instruments they know that the noon signal is about to be sent out, and they at once begin to connect the telegraph wires with other towns and cities, until in a minute or two the "tick, tick" of the clock at Washington is heard in hundreds of telegraph offices. The beats stop at ten seconds before twelve as a notice that the next "tick" will be the noon signal, and so as to give the operators time to connect their wires with the standard time-balls and clocks. There are time-balls in a great many cities—usually on top of some prominent building, where they can easily be seen. The one at Washington is on the roof of the State, War, and Navy Department Building, at the top of a high pole, ready to drop the instant the signal comes over the wire. In the government offices at Washington and in many places in other cities there are large clocks connected with the observatory by electricity. These are so arranged that when the twelve-o'clock signal is flashed over the wires, the hands of each one of these clocks spring to twelve, no matter what time the clock may show; in this way hundreds of clocks are set to the correct time each day.

Well, the moment the sun is supposed to cross the seventy-fifth meridian, the telegraph instruments give a single tick, the time-balls drop, the clocks begin to strike, and everybody in the district knows it is twelve o'clock.

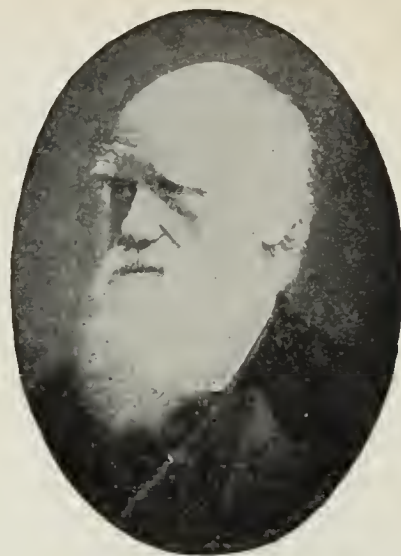




ALFRED, LORD TENNYSON.



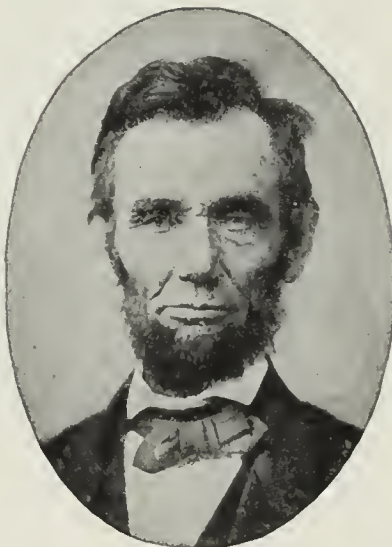
WILLIAM E. GLADSTONE.



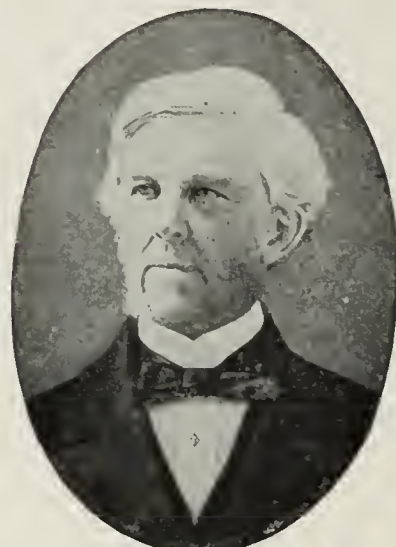
CHARLES DARWIN.



EDGAR ALLAN POE.



ABRAHAM LINCOLN.



OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES.



FRÉDÉRIC CHOPIN.

FAMOUS MEN

BORN IN

THE YEAR

1809



FELIX MENDELSSOHN-BARTHOLDY.



# FIRECRACKERS

BY ERICK POMEROY

TEMPLE OF THE EMPRESS OF HEAVEN, CHINA. THIS is the 13th day of the fifth moon of the 33d year of Kwang-su, very early in the morning—



FIG. 1. IN A FIRECRACKER SHOP.

that is, "very early" for me, because I ordered my "boy" last evening to call me at eight o'clock this morning and not a minute before. Here, in the rambling old temple where we live, we have learned to go to bed with the sun on the 14th and on the last day of each Chinese moon, because we know that the wailing pipes of the early morning celebrations before the gods on the 1st and 15th of the moon will be certain to wake us at a truly heathenish hour. But when an extra, unannounced, unexpected festival day is ushered in with cymbals, pipes, and firecrackers, then we just have to lose our morning sleep and try not to lose our tempers. This morning is one of those dawns of misery. Even as I write the temple bells, the drums, and those peculiar jig-time horns are setting up a discordant hubbub in the courtyards, while at intervals a big cracker sends me springing into the air with a start that fearfully tries my nerves. At first this morning I endeavored to sleep, but I soon gave that up to don my kimono and sally forth to find out the cause of this gratuitous Fourth of July. Out on the terrace in front of the inner gates of the temple, to which the rays of the rising sun had not yet bent down, there was gathered a small group of men and boys watching such a display of firecrackers

as would have attracted a whole City Hall Park full of people at home. Yet their interest was apparently much like their numbers—very small. They just gazed at the exploding end of the red string of noise without any comments and without any more evident interest than they took in seeing that the small boys picked up all of the unexploded crackers that were blown out of the danger circle by their more powerful brothers.



FIG. 2. ROLLING A CRACKER.

My appearance in a kimono and straw sandals seemed to furnish them with more excitement than the rope of crackers which hung from the firecracker pole hard by. Such a din! Can you imagine a string of firecrackers, large and small woven together, of over 100,000?

But I am getting ahead of my story. By way



of introduction I meant only to tell you that I have for some time been planning to write a let-



FIG. 3. HEXAGONAL BUNDLES OF FIRECRACKERS DRYING IN THE SUN.

ter to your good editor in the hope that he might be willing to pass on to you of the fast-disappearing American "firecracker age" my story of how this country, the native land of the "whip-guns," manufactures and uses these crackers which we think of as belonging only to our Fourth of July.

The desire and determination to write this letter had their birth one day in a city of North China when I was walking along the street where many of the firecracker-makers live—since dubbed "Firecracker Row" on my private chart of the city—and when I suddenly realized how much I should have liked as a boy, when I was "shooting off crackers," to see these places and to know their ways of manufacture. It is difficult not to be interrupted nor to interrupt these lines. Now there are two little pigtailed heads stretched up just over my window-sill, peeping in and asking if I do not wish to buy the tiger-lilies they have gathered on the hillside. So first I will try to tell you how the crackers are made and then how they are used out here, in the hope that you may find as much interest in reading the story as I have found in gathering the information and pictures for it.

Several times I went into the city to visit Firecracker Row, and on one occasion took a series of photographs to show more clearly than words will do the important steps in the process of manufacture. The first step consists in cutting the rough brown paper into pieces such as you can see piled up on the back of the bench just below the lamp in Fig. 1. These are long enough to

make a hollow tube of several layers in thickness, and wide enough to give the tube a length just twice that of the finished cracker. From the top of his pile the workman takes a pack of these slips, lays them out with one end arranged just like steps, and then slides down the stairs, as it were, with a brush of paste, so as to make the outer ends of the slips stick fast when rolled against the tube. Then he bends the other—the dry—end around an iron nail, and places the nail under a board, which rolls it along the slip until all the paper has curled around it, just as you can see the old man rolling one in Fig. 2. Once the cracker skeleton is thus formed, he gives it an extra roll or two down the bench for good measure, slides it off the nail into a basket, and has another started before you realize what he is about. Then one of the small apprentices in the shop arranges the skeletons together in a six-sided bundle, like those on the drying-board in Fig. 3, in each of which he puts just 507. Why that particular number, I could not find out.



FIG. 4. WITH A HEAVY KNIFE CUTTING THROUGH A BUNDLE OF CRACKERS.

Once dry, the skeletons receive their covering garment of red paper, which makes them so truly "little redskins"—this from the hands of one of the workers without the aid of any machine whatever. He just rolls one of the narrow slips around the tube with his fingers and hurries the



growing agitator into another basket to await the time for stuffing in the material that will make him such a lively fellow. Once more, however, they all have to be packed up into the six-sided bundles, this time with two stout strings tied around them a third of the way from the top and bottom, leaving the middle free. You can see clearly in Fig. 4 the way the workers take their big knife and chop right down through the whole bundle to make the clean ends for the tops of the shorter tubes.

These shorter tubes next have a thin paper covering pasted over both tops and bottoms before the bottoms are closed by tapping them with a nail that is just a little larger than the hole in the tube, so that it crowds down some of the paper from the sides. With the bundles right side up, the workman then makes holes in the paper cover over the top, scatters on this the powder dust, and distributes it fairly evenly among the 507 hungry ones by means of a light brush. When the dust has been tamped a little, the powder finds its way to the middle of the tube in the same manner, the fuse is inserted by another workman, the top layer of dust added, and the whole supply of bottled fun packed in by another tamping with a nail and mallet. Completed and still crowded together in the bundles, the little redskins, with the fuses sticking out of their caps, seem to wear a festive,



FIG. 5. "STRINGS" OF FIRECRACKERS.

promising look that clearly says: "You give us a light, and we'll do the rest. And what a high old time it will be!"

When asked how many of these bundles one man could make in a day, the good-natured master of the shop—whose smile in Fig. 6 is proof

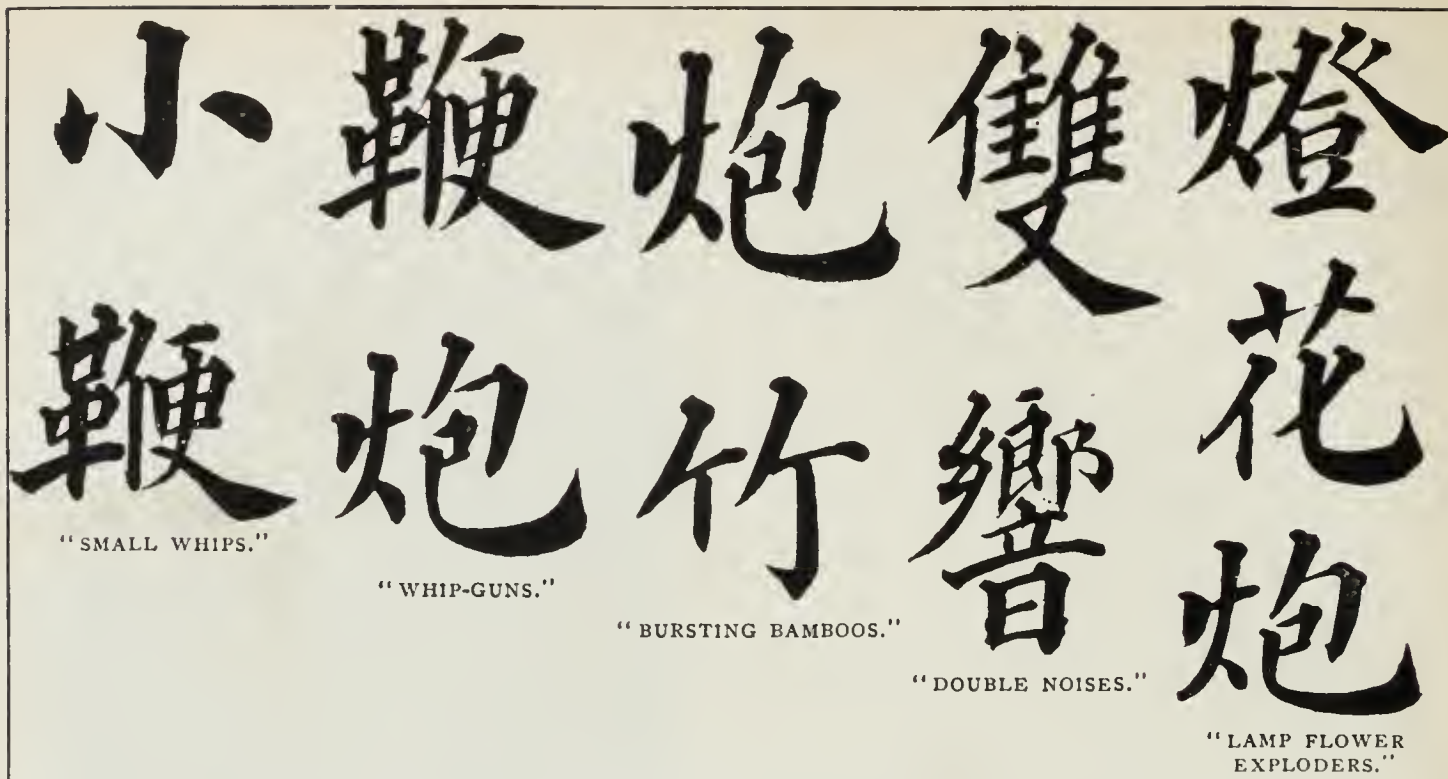
enough to support my statement—said that one man is counted on to make twenty bundles up to the point where the powder is put in, when the crackers are passed along to others to finish and weave into strings. What a string means here in this land, where the diminutive "packs" we used



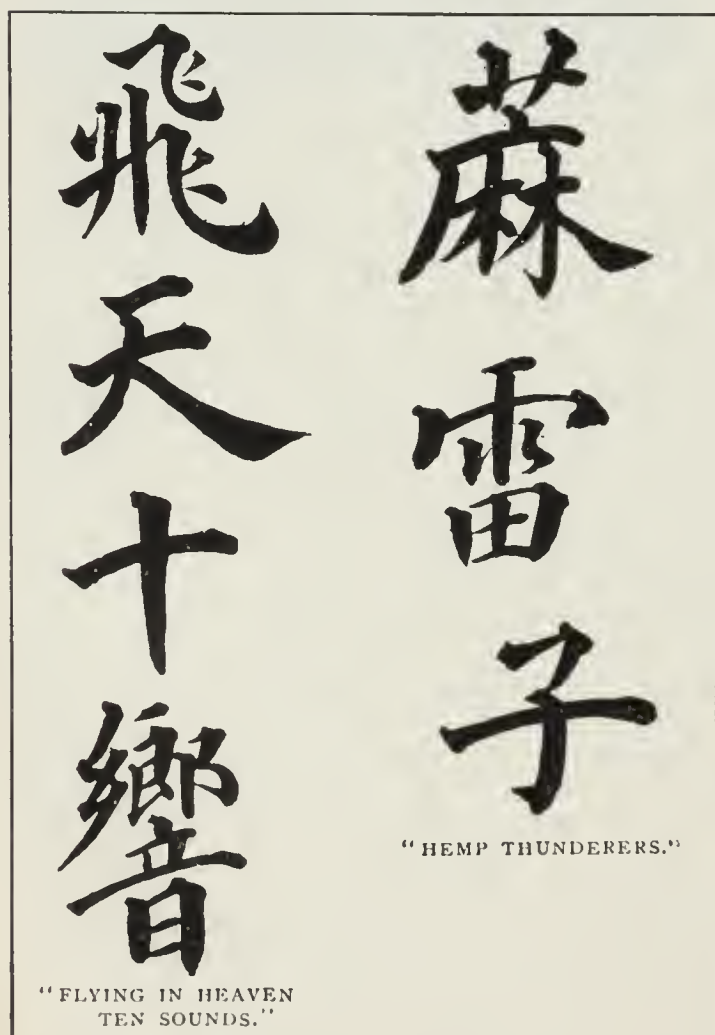
FIG. 6. THE PROPRIETOR OF THE FIRECRACKER FACTORY.

to buy for a nickel would be scorned, may be gathered from a glance at those which the maker is holding up in Fig. 5 and at those on the drying-boards in the view shown in Fig. 3.

Once the crackers have been fully prepared for stringing, either they are put together in such strings as you see in the pictures or they have bigger fellows—four or five times the size of the little ones—plaited in at regular intervals. Then they are wrapped neatly with red or white paper in long packages bearing on the face a red slip with the shop's name printed on it in gilt characters. Some of these packets would have seemed monstrous—needlessly extravagant—in those days when I used to make one or two nickel packs last the better part of a Fourth of July morning by firing them one by one in a hole in the tie-post or under a tin can. To give these longer strings sufficient strength to hang from a pole, as is the usual way of firing them, the workmen weave in with the fuses a light piece of hemp twine. But even this is not an adequate protection against a break in those monster strings that come out on special occasions. The one that started this letter to you was fifteen feet long when I arrived on the scene to investigate the disturbance and had already lost one half its numbers (I have seen strings from thirty to fifty feet long). To keep



NAMES USED ON THE LABELS OF VARIOUS SIZES OF CHINESE FIRECRACKERS.



such a string from breaking, the Chinese fasten it at intervals to a rope which runs through the

pulley at the top of the pole, and then draw the line up until the bottom clears the ground. As the explosions tear away the lowest crackers, the rope is let down and, at the same time, held out away from the bottom of the pole to make a graceful curve of the last few feet of the string. When such long strings have eaten themselves up, you can picture the amount of fragments around the base of the pole. There are literally basketfuls of them to be first wetted down to guard against fire and then swept up or allowed to blow away when the winds so will.

Thus far you have heard only of little and big crackers. However, there are many distinguishing names among the Chinese for the several varieties and sizes, which I am going to give you before passing on to the story of the special uses of crackers in the Chinese life. First come the ordinary *p'ien p'ao*, or "whip-guns," the small ones which derive their name from the similarity which their explosion bears to the snapping of a whip. Sometimes they are called simply "whips," in the same way that the Chinese speak of many things by shortened or changed names. To make these names seem more real to you I have had my Chinese teacher write out for me on separate slips the characters which represent them. More diminutive than the ordinary crackers are the "small whips," about an inch long, that are made especially for the small children to use without danger. For one American cent you could buy about 100 of these. Then above the whip-guns the next class is the "bursting bamboos,"



which are said to have taken their name from the fact that in early times bamboo was used as the tubes for these crackers. If such were the case, a line of them must have "made the splinters fly." Even still more powerful are the "hemp thunders," or, to take a little liberty with the translation, the "hemp sons of thunder," whose name also indicates their construction and their magnitude. Bearing a close similarity in power to our cannon crackers, these have been known at times to break the second-story paper windows in a small compound. They play an important part in the worshiping or propitiating of the gods in our courtyard, inasmuch as it is considered good form to set them off at intervals while the whip-guns—which my teacher assures me "do not require any watching"—are keeping up their unbroken stream of praise and prayer. They may be considered as good lusty "Amens" throughout the service.

Slightly different in form are the "double noises," which are nothing more or less than our "boosters" that go off first on the ground and again up in the air. To intersperse these throughout the explosions of the whips during any special demonstration is also considered good form. Then allied to these we find another booster, which when it explodes on the ground drives ten others up into the air to become the "flying in heaven ten sounds" with the Chinese. These are only "for play," and that chiefly in the homes from the 13th to the 17th days of the first moon of the year. With the "lamp flower exploders," that is, our flower-pot, the list of the most common forms of crackers and fireworks becomes exhausted, although the Chinese have several other less usual species, together with many alternative names for both these and the ones I have mentioned.

The time when the Chinese receive most crackers is at the New Year season, when, among the well-to-do families of Tientsin and Peking, it is customary to give a boy the equivalent of our fifty cents for his purchases. In Peking the shops issue special red notes, like our old "shinplasters" in value, for this one use at the New Year. In giving the cracker money to the boys, the parents often make smaller presents to the girls, who are wont to buy paper flowers with their pennies, in proof of which the Chinese have a proverb which runs, "Girls like flowers; boys like crackers."

But this juvenile use of the whip-guns consumes only an infinitesimal part of the whole supply of the year. At many festivals and on many occasions the head of the house, the manager of the shop, or the officers of the gild require great quantities of these propitious harbingers. Great-

est of all occasions is the passing of the year, when the people keep up the successor to the ancient custom of setting off the "bamboo guns" in order to drive away the evil spirits of the past twelvemonth and to usher in all that is good for the coming one. All night long the crackers have been popping in the town below, and an early gathering in the temple is held to add the final touch before the new day shall break.

When morning came, I wandered leisurely to my office through the business section of the town to watch the fun at the big shops. Never shall I forget the picture of that street with its dozen or more great red strings of crackers hanging in front of the bigger honges and seemingly waiting for some word to start the fusillade. Fortunately this came and the storm broke as I waited. For sheer noise, vivacity, and demonstrative liveliness I never have seen the equal of those snarling, bursting lines that poured out their wrath with incessant fervor upon the evil spirits below and shot up their welcome to the good ones above. Then, although this display on New Year's Day seemed grand enough to last a long time, there came more explosions as the shops took down their doors and began again their routine business on the 5th or 6th of the moon. Furthermore, custom demands in certain parts that throughout the first ten days of the year there shall be occasional snappings of the whips, to be followed on the 15th, at the Feast of Lanterns, by a still greater demonstration.

When a new shop is opened, it is customary for all the front boards to be left up until just before the opening ceremony takes place; then one or two boards are taken down, the manager and his assistants come out to light a string of crackers, and, as the whips are snapping, the remaining boards come down to the sound of this propitious music of the land. Very often there are several strings hung from poles or tripods, and one is lighted after the other in such a way as to maintain a long, unbroken stream of noise.

In most parts of the empire it is also customary for an official, when he receives the seals of office from his predecessor, to have a string of crackers let off at the proper moment. And I must confess to having yielded myself to the pressure of my Chinese assistants in having purchased a few for use at the time we opened our new office at this place. Likewise, when a military official is leaving a post, he is usually accorded a send-off with crackers which have been subscribed for by his men.

And thus, from what has gone before, you may catch some idea of the persistency with which the little redskins have poked their noses into almost all the important celebrations of the Chinese life.

## UNCLE SAM'S TOYS

BY WILL H. CHANDLEE

It will doubtless surprise many readers to learn that Uncle Sam has one of the largest collections of toys in the world. He keeps them in the National Museum at Washington, where they may be seen by hundreds, nicely arranged and labeled, in the exhibition hall. But on the balcony in the west end of the big building is the real Santa Claus shop. Like the spider's parlor in the nursery song, the way to this wonderland is "up a winding stair."

On each side of the long balcony is a range of tall pine cases fitted with drawers in which are stored toys and games from all parts of the world. To be sure, these drawers contain many other interesting objects besides, for it is in this department that everything relating to ethnology is sorted and catalogued for exhibition. Ethnology is the science which tells us of human races in their progress from savagery to civilization—how people in all parts of the world live, of the things they use in everyday life, and how they use them.

The toys and games in Uncle Sam's collection have been gathered, by his agents, from every known country. Many of them are rare and costly, and beautifully made; but the most interesting and unusual are the product of uncivilized hands. Some are gorgeously colored and decorated with beads and shells, while others are grimy and pitifully mean; but they have each brought their measure of joy to some childish heart, somewhere.

Of dolls alone there are enough to give any little girl reader a new one every day until she becomes too old to care longer for them; ivory babies from Alaska, dressed in little coats of deer fur to protect them from an Arctic winter; South Sea Island puppets with scarcely any

clothes at all; Indian papooses decked with beads and buckskin; pink-cheeked waxen beauties from Paris; almond-eyed Japanese in red kimonos; black wooden images from the Congo; and various other dolls fashioned from clothes-pins, pine-cones, and corn-husks:

Some in rags,  
Some in jags,  
And some in velvet gowns.

Uncle Sam is especially rich in Alaskan dolls. Some of them are of ivory, no bigger than your thumb; but the clothing is made with the greatest care from the softest sealskin, trimmed with beads and edged with white hair from the leg of the deer. Others are two or three feet in height, and are carved from wood, and equally well dressed, even to their mittens, skin caps with ear-flaps, and their perfectly correct snowshoes. Then there are the dolls of the Zuñi and the Moqui Indians of Arizona and New Mexico. These are a brilliant and cheerful gathering, and occupy a drawer all to themselves. Some are made of wood and others of baked clay, and all are painted in gaudy colors. Some among them have real hair, done up in funny little knots above their ears, or in braids with feathers and red flannel. I show you a picture of one of them; he represents a fire-dancer. His body is painted black and is spangled all over with glistening tinsel, which makes him appear as if he were covered with sparks.

Many of the more beautiful toys were made by the Eskimos. During the long Arctic nights these wonderful little people carve, from the tusks of the walrus, figures of every conceivable shape and design. Often entire villages are



ESKIMO DOG-SLEDGE CARVED OUT OF WOOD BY ESKIMOS.



made, the huts, bidarkees (or canoes), and dog-sledges being in perfect miniature. The long sledge shown in the picture is from Labrador. It is a fine specimen of native workmanship.



MOQUI INDIAN FIRE-DANCER DOLL.

The dogs are cut out of fine-grained white wood, and are most natural in their attitudes. The toy-makers of Nuremberg or of Switzerland could not have done more skilful work. The art of these Arctic folk is the more wonderful when one considers the very primitive tools which they have to use. The knife with which they carve the dainty little figures is seldom



LABRADOR DOLL IN WINTER DRESS.

more than a bit of steel barrel-hoop, ground down to an edge, and lashed with thongs of walrus-hide to a handle of bone or drift-wood.

The toys of the Zuñi Indians are modeled in clay and baked to prevent them from crumbling. Cows, goats, and frogs, streaked and spotted with paint, hold the first place in this collection, but there are also clay whistles and bird-warblers, the latter quite like the tin ones seen in our shop-windows. The bird is made to sing by filling its hollow body with water and blowing through a tube inserted in its back. There are also clay rattles of various shapes and sizes in the Zuñi exhibit, and wooden birds that flap their jointed wings like those we hang upon our Christmas tree.



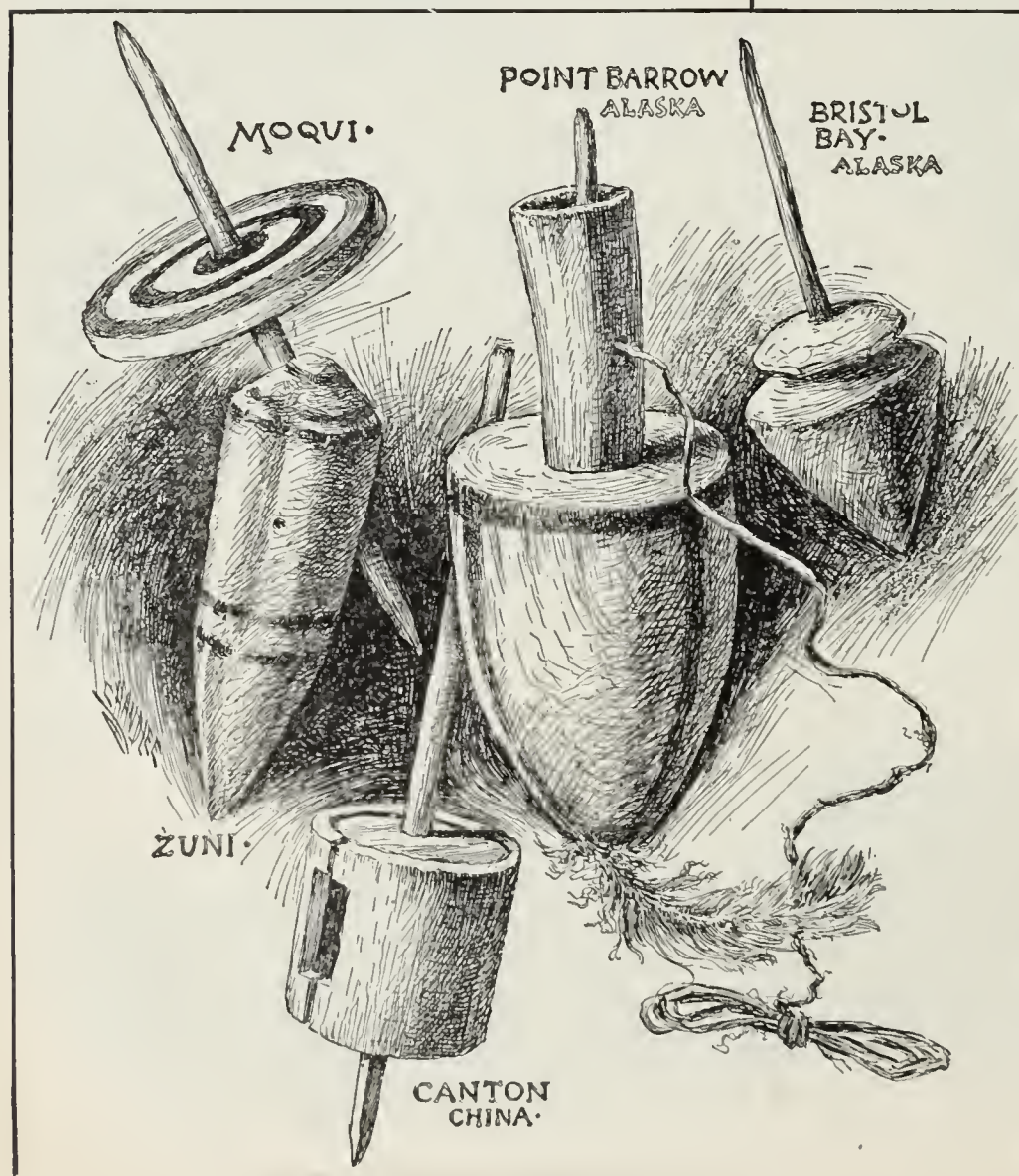
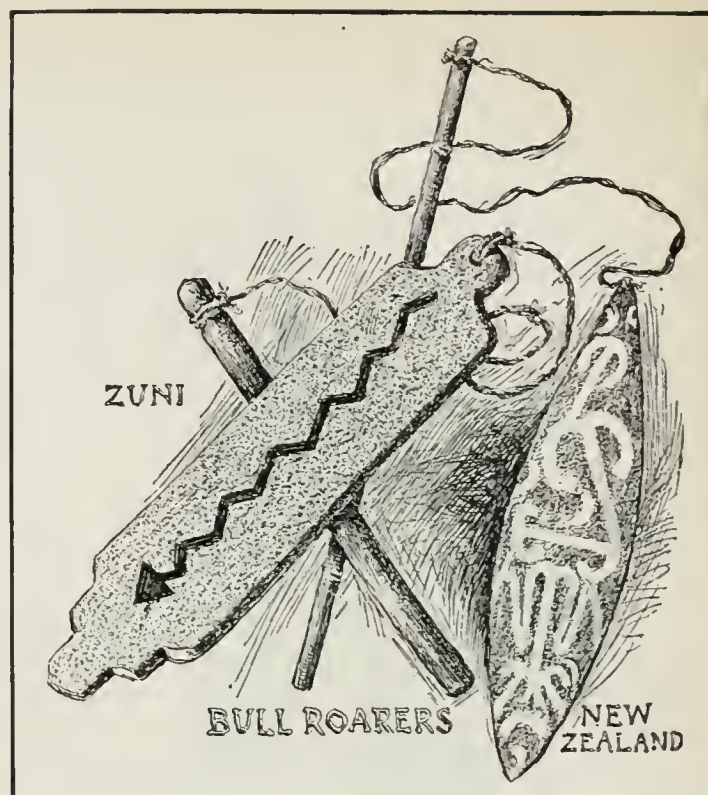
ZUÑI RATTLE AND FLAPPING BIRD.



In the collection of games there are a great many objects interesting either for the oddity of their shape, curious operation, or beauty of workmanship. One novel game consists of four pieces of bone attached by a bead string to a long steel bodkin. The bodkin is held in one hand and the bones tossed up into the air. A skilful player may succeed in catching one or more of the bones upon the steel point, and scores accordingly. This game is a favorite with the Cheyenne Indians, and is not unlike our own game of "cup-and-ball."

A card game from Persia, valued at many hundreds of dollars, has its board inlaid in solid gold; and a set of chessmen from India are of beautifully carved ivory, each "man" being at least four inches in height.

Another curious game, from which our "jack-straws" is probably descended, consists of a bundle of arrows of carved ivory or wood. It was an ancient custom to toss these arrows into the air, and after they fell to the ground they



were drawn out by the men grouped around them. In this manner, and according to the number and symbols upon the arrow, captains were appointed in the army and various duties were assigned the soldiers.

The so-called "bull-roarer," one of the oldest of toys, has an interesting history. It is nothing more than a bit of wood attached to a string, which, on being whirled around rapidly, produces a loud, rumbling sound. The ancient Egyptians believed that the rumbling of the "bull-roarer" would be answered by the rumbling of thunder; consequently during a drought the men would sally forth, "bull-roarers" in hand, to invoke the rain-god to send them water from the skies. This curious toy is still used by some savage tribes, who believe its roaring noise will frighten away evil spirits that may be lurking near.

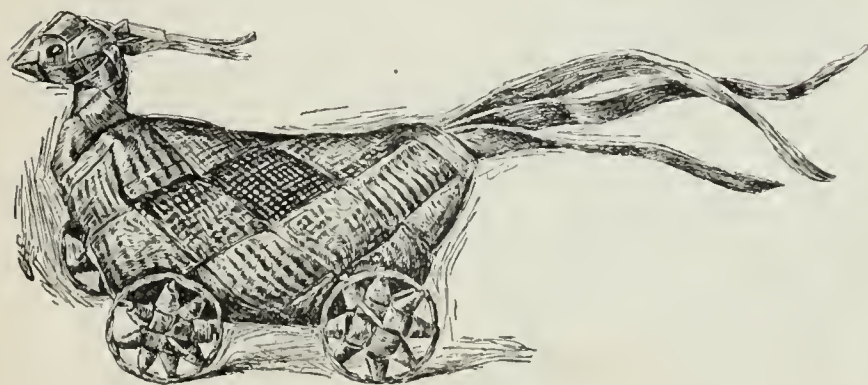


Tops and teetotums abound in the west balcony of the National Museum. They differ but little the world over. Uncle Sam has scores of



A DOLL OF PINE BARK.

them from Alaska, India, the Congo, China, and some from the Zuñi Indians. They are of various shapes and colors, some long and slen-

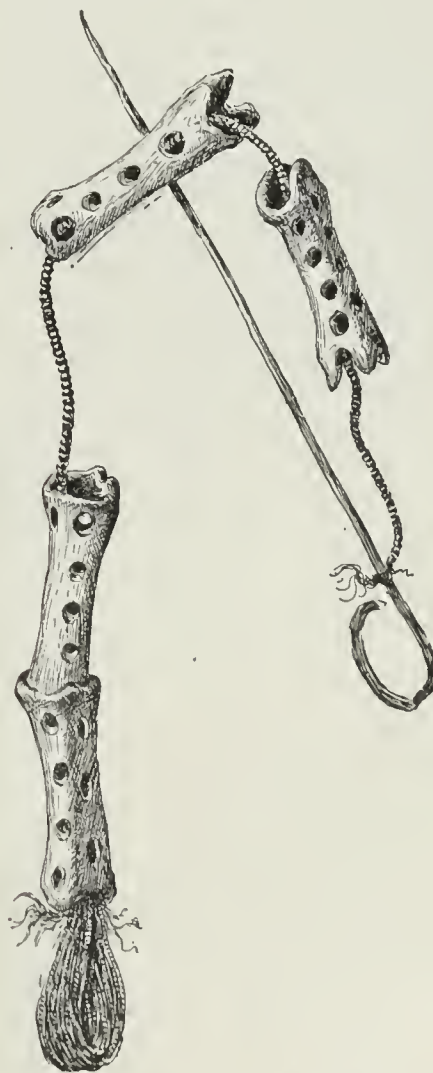


A STRANGE BIRD ON WHEELS, FROM INDIA.

der, others short and thick, with "pegs" of ivory, stone, horn, bone, or metal. Those of the Zuñi are painted in gaudy stripes or rings of white,

red, green, and black. The large top shown in the drawing is spun by pulling a thong or cord made of rawhide through a hole in the side of its socket. One can find its elegantly finished descendants in any toy-window, it may be, with the word "Patented" marked upon them.

Another exhibit of especial interest to boys is a collection of balls—baseballs, handballs, and footballs. One among them is a nicely rounded bit of solid rubber. Others are built up of tightly wrapped deer-hide; these are used by the Indian boys. There are others still of wood; and one ball in particular, which it would not be advisable for any boy to attempt to "take off the bat," even with an extra heavy pair of catcher's gloves, is made of stone incased in buckskin. The large football in the picture is of Siamese manufacture; it is made of woven bamboo, is very springy, and is indestructible.

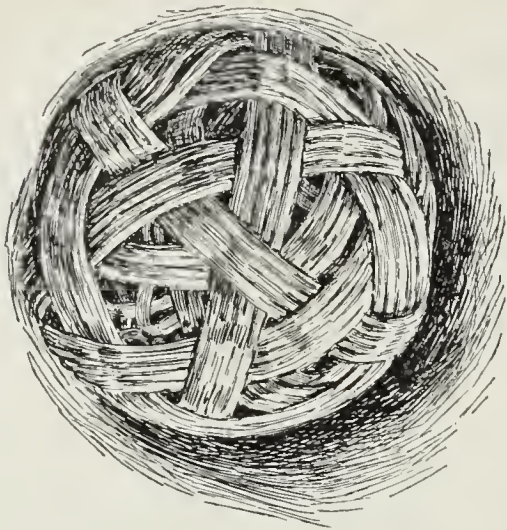


A CHEYENNE INDIAN GAME.

Dice, dominoes, parcheesi, and checkers have not been forgotten by Uncle Sam in his collection of games. He has a generous supply of



them on hand. Some counters are mere bits of bone, roughly whittled wood, or painted shells,



A BAMBOO FOOTBALL FROM SIAM.

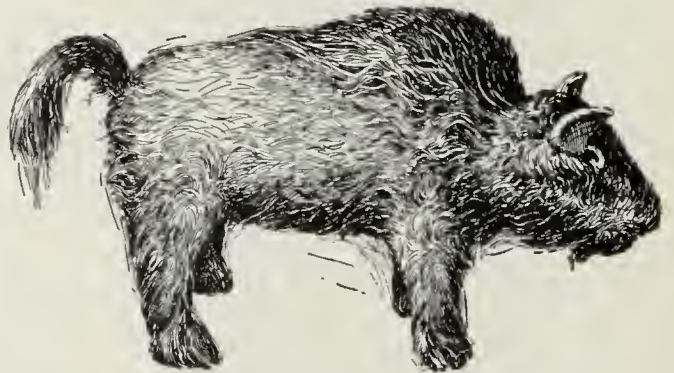
while others are of elaborately carved and polished ivory.

The mounted soldier, dressed in the costume of a warrior of the Spanish invasion, is from Mexico. His armor is made of bits of leather and is covered with strips of tin-foil to represent steel, as are also his feather-bedecked helmet and the point of the spear which he carries in his hand.

The thought that comes to one when viewing the toys and games of savage and semi-civilized

racés is the similarity that exists between them and those of our own race. "See how these poor people have tried to copy our playthings," one is tempted to say; but here we are mistaken, for our toys and games, as well as many of the articles we use every day, are nothing more than improvements upon the crude forms and designs handed down to us by these savages, for as men become more civilized, so the work of the hand and the brain advances—ever going on toward the stage of perfection.

When next you are visiting Washington, do not fail to visit the National Museum, where the guardian of the treasure in the west balcony



FOR A SIOUX INDIAN BOY.

will show you more dolls and balls, tops, teetotums, and wonder-things than one could dream of in a year of Christmas eves.



FROM OLD MEXICO.



# When the Camera was Unknown

By Morris Wade

THE making of silhouettes can hardly be classed among the lost arts, since there is so little art about them. The best of them represent the human profile in a crude way, and they were regarded as rather a cheap kind of pictures even in the days when they were most popular. Indeed, the very word silhouette means something poor and cheap and



SILHOUETTE OF GEORGE WASHINGTON.

it had its origin in a spirit of ridicule. It is taken from Etienne de Silhouette who was a French Cabinet Minister in the year 1759 when the treasury of France was very low because of costly wars with Britain and Prussia and by the extravagances of the government. When Etienne de Silhouette became minister of finance he set about making great reforms in the public expenditures. He was, by nature, a very "close" man, and he went to such extremes in keeping down the public expenses that he brought great ridicule upon himself, and finally anything that was cheap and poor was referred to as *à la Silhouette*.

A very crude picture was popular at that

time. It was made by tracing the shadow or profile of a face projected by the light of a candle on a sheet of white paper and the outline defined with a pencil. This was such a very poor and cheap sort of a picture that it was at once called a silhouette in further derision of the very saving French minister and the name has "stuck." It is an instance of the curious derivation of some words in common use, and this unkind slur on a man who was really trying to introduce needed reforms in the spending of the public money has long been accepted as a good and proper word. Indeed, there is no other word used for pictures of this kind, although there were such pictures long before Monsieur Etienne de Silhouette had his name attached to them in so embarrassing a way.

Madame Pompadour brought the silhouette into popularity by showing a great liking for it, and the pictures made by casting a shadow with a lamp were called profiles *à la Pompadour*. They were to be seen all over France.

Then the silhouette became popular in America a great many years ago, and a man named Charles Wilson Peale, who had a museum in Philadelphia, became famous for his cleverness in executing them. He invented a kind of a machine which traced the profile with extreme accuracy. Even George Washington sat to Peale for a silhouette, and all the most prominent gentlemen and ladies of the day felt that they must have silhouettes of themselves.

Then there was a boy of seventeen named James Hubard who came to this country from England and went from place to place setting up "Hubard Galleries" to which the people flocked to have silhouettes of themselves made by the clever "artist." He had many samples of his work on exhibition and the people paid fifty cents for admission to the gallery. This also paid for a silhouette which young Hubard cut out in a very few seconds with a pair of scissors. He was looked upon as a great genius, and he exhibited with pride a silver palette presented to him by the Philosophical Society of Glasgow in appreciation of his unusual talent. On the palette were the words: "Presented to Master James Hubard by admirers of his

genius in the city of Glasgow, Scotland, February 14, 1824."

Young Hubbard exhibited his silhouettes at the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts and in New York and Boston. He became ambitious to do better work than any mere maker of silhouettes could do, and he finally made quite a reputation as a painter of portraits. He remained in our country and died in Richmond, Virginia in 1862, his death having been caused by the explosion of a shell he was filling with a compound he had manufactured for the use of the Confederate Army.

Another noted silhouettist coming to this country from foreign lands was Monsieur Edouart who arrived on our shores in 1838, and for nine or ten years he was kept busy making silhouettes of people who admired this kind of art. Edouart kept a copy of each silhouette he made and he valued his collection so highly that it quite broke his heart when the entire collection went to the bottom of the sea while Edouart was returning to his native land from America in 1847.

America produced a silhouettist thought by many to be as clever as any who had come to our country from foreign lands. This was William Henry Brown who was but sixteen years old when he cut a very fine silhouette of General Lafayette who was then on a visit to this country. In some respects Brown was even cleverer than any of his predecessors had been. He was a kind of a "snap shot" silhouettist for he could make silhouettes of men and women on the street without the subjects of his pictures being aware of the fact that they were having their "likenesses" taken. Indeed, he had such remarkable skill in memorizing faces and forms that he could look at a person on the street and cut a wonderfully good silhouette of the person after returning to his studio. He went farther than other silhouettists had done, for he made cuttings of ships and railroad trains and processions in which the figures were readily recognized. He made one cutting twenty-five feet long with sixty-five persons in it, and so clever was the execution that it was easy to recognize every figure in it.

One may see in one of the public school buildings in Boston, two silhouettes of unusual interest, for they are of George and Martha Washington. Possibly they are the work of Peale, but there is nothing to indi-

cate the name of the silhouettist. Underneath the frame in which the profiles are, is this information in regard to them:

"The within are profiles of General and Mrs. Washington taken from their shadows on a wall. They are as perfect likenesses as profiles can give. Presented to me by my friend, Mrs. Eleanor P. Lewis at Woodlawn, July 1832.

"ELIZABETH BORDLEY GIBSON."



SILHOUETTE OF MARTHA WASHINGTON.

The Mrs. Eleanor P. Lewis referred to was a great-granddaughter of Martha Washington.

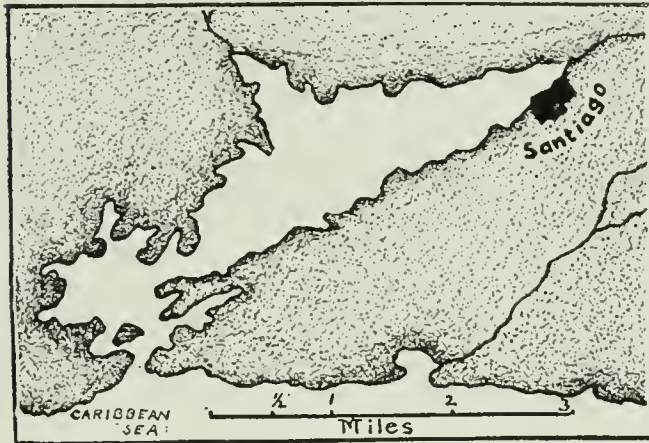
The silhouettes were presented to the school by Mr. Edward Shippen of Philadelphia. They are the original profiles, and not copies. The invention of the daguerreotype by M. Daguerre in 1839 put the nose of the silhouettist quite hopelessly "out of joint." No one wanted a silhouette after having seen the daguerreotype. Then the daguerreotype lost favor because of the perfection of the art of the photographer. This art of the photographer has now reached a degree of perfection that was undreamed of by those who first practised it.



# GEOGRAPHICAL BOTTLES

BY WALTER J. KENYON

ON the 30th of May, 1898, our morning newspapers announced to the eager public that Cervera's fleet lay "bottled up" in Santiago harbor. No boy of the present generation will forget, as long as he lives, the electric effect of that headline. Nor will he be less likely to remember how a coaling vessel was by and by sunk athwart the narrow entrance to that harbor, with the idea of "corking up the bottle." Now that the excitement of those days, together with the events of the war itself, have become matters of history, it will be well



THE HARBOR OF SANTIAGO.

worth while to revisit this famous "bottle," and some others of its type.

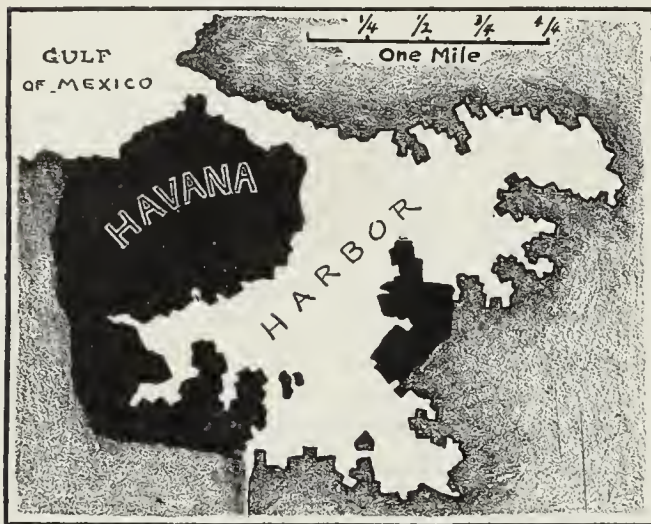
The detail of Santiago harbor is shown on this page. At the first glance we notice how narrow, how very narrow, the entrance is. Indeed we are told that it is only six hundred feet in width, a dimension not exceeding the length of a good-sized Atlantic steamer. And this narrow passage from the sea leads between two rocky hills, almost mountains, into an inland waterway,—the Bay of Santiago de Cuba. Well, within this great salt water bottle lay the seven vessels of the Spanish fleet, so well hidden by the intervening hills that the American vessels, reconnoitering on the outside, at first could spy no trace of them within.

These arms of the mountain, coming so near together, are useful in times of peace, also, to keep out the great storms that now and again lash the Caribbean Sea. On the outside, a hurricane may be sinking every vessel in its track, while within, a boy may safely row his boat. The effect of this mountain fence with a gateway through it may be best imagined by remembering how some ports, having no such protection by nature, have spent millions of dollars in building breakwaters of piles and rocks. What things it would mean to Chicago, for instance, or Galveston, could either rub her Aladdin's lamp and find herself lying snugly in a bottle harbor, instead of crouching behind her fence of sticks and stones!

If we now take a trip around the world, over the maps of a good atlas, we shall find that this geographical bottle is a very common type of harbor, the world over. The coasts of Cuba show a succession of such inclosed bays, Havana harbor being typical. It often happens that nature herself provides the corks, also in the shape of islands that almost block up the entrance, or at least block the view from the outside. Such a cork is Corregidor Island, in Manila Bay, or the rocky Alcatraz fortress just inside the Golden Gate, at San Francisco; and Smith Cay occupies a similar position at Santiago.

The Annapolis Basin, in Nova Scotia, is very typical among these geographical bottles. A fairly good map of that beautiful country will show a narrow gap on the Bay of Fundy side of the peninsula. This gap, known as Digby Strait, breaks through a long ridge that the people call North Mountain. Through this break rush the famous tides of Fundy, and fill up an inland basin of salt water twenty miles long and several in width. The entrance, from the outside, is mysteriously invisible to the landsman's eye. To a passenger crossing the Bay of Fundy from St. John is seems as if

the captain were steering his trim side-wheeler head on, into a blue mountain wall. But at last the forested mountain opens, and through the break the interior hills of Nova Scotia close the distance. One can imagine the tremendous



THE HARBOR OF HAVANA.

tide race through this Digby Strait when we know that the ordinary tidal rise in this region is anywhere from forty to seventy feet. It is so great, in fact, that the wharves at Digby are two-storied affairs; and people go aboard steamers from the upper or lower story, according to the height of the tide.

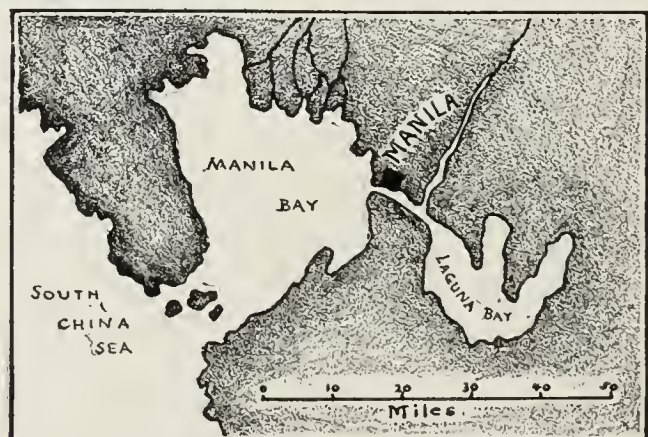
New York harbor is, in most respects, a geographical bottle—only it has two mouths instead of one. Added to the principal opening, the Narrows, a sort of side entrance is provided by the East "River," leading out into the Sound.

The coast of Australia presents several examples of the geographical bottle, the finest being the harbor of Melbourne. An ordinary map shows this city located apparently upon a first rate harbor of the bottle type we have been examining. As a matter of fact the bottle is really there—a magnificent enclosure of salt water fully thirty-five miles across, in either direction. Into this bay, called Port Phillip, there flows the Yarra River; and oddly enough, Melbourne, with its half million people, hides itself away nine miles up this stream! Below the city the river has two sand-bars which prevent the passage of large vessels. The heavy ocean traffic, therefore, has its terminus in the

bay, whence the journey is continued to town by rail. The explanation for this awkward situation seems to be that, in the early days of Melbourne, the one idea of the settlers was to build as near as might be to the gold diggings. So up the river the miners planted their settlement, never dreaming that one day it would become a great metropolis, imprisoned behind the sands of the useless Yarra.

Rio de Janeiro has a splendid enclosed harbor—the best in all South America; better far than the shallow "Lake" Maracaibo, which looks so ideal upon the map. Here again, at Rio, we have a great salt water inlet, some seventeen miles across, communicating with the ocean by a narrow strait.

In nearly every case these natural bottles are what the geographer calls "drowned rivers." That is to say, the coastal lands in the vicinity have subsided, allowing the sea to flow in, and convert what was a lowland valley into a partly enclosed marine area. Divers have gone to the bottom of New York Bay and have found there the ancient bed of the Hudson River, as that stream flowed before the mouthward part of its valley subsided into the sea. The old bed reaches through the Narrows and well out into the floor of the Atlantic. Of course, as the sea water entered the sinking valley, any hills rising thereabout would become islands, in the new order of things. And there we find



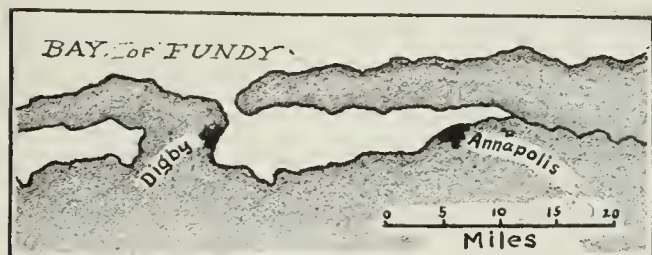
MANILA BAY AND LAGUNA BAY.

them to this day, in almost any of these enclosed inlets.

Next in order of value, after the "bottle" harbors, are the river-mouths that have become walled in by sand-bars. Sometimes these



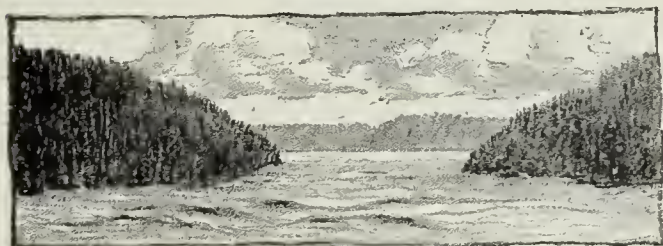
reaches of water are very spacious, and their protecting islands of sand are many miles in length. Pamlico and Albemarle sounds, in North Carolina, are of this sort. But such a harbor, besides being too shallow for use by large vessels, is liable to all sorts of changes of bottom, as each freshet from the river shifts



THE ANNAPOLIS BASIN.

the sands about. It is easy to see how much better a harbor is one of our geographical "bottles," lying behind two stalwart, unchanging mountains that push their noses toward each other just far enough apart to allow a fine deep water strait between them.

The poorest type of natural harbor is just a V-shaped dent in the coast, where, granted good weather, vessels may run in and unload, putting off again before the next heavy storm. Vineyard Haven, in the island of Martha's Vineyard, is one of these. In the terrible storm that swept the Atlantic coast in November, 1898, a dozen or more sailing craft made for this little dent in the coastline. But they drove before the wind and the wild sea smashed



THE ENTRANCE TO THE ANNAPOLIS BASIN.

them all against the shore. It even threw parts of these wrecks across the wagon road that skirts the bay. One heavy schooner was driven entirely through a stout steamer wharf, cutting the latter in two! It takes such happenings as this to awake the imagination of the "land-lubber" to the differences in harbors.

Perhaps the most notable "bottle" harbor in the world is that at San Francisco. Here is a vast reach of water fifty-five miles long and in some parts twelve in width. Into this bay the tides of the Pacific flow, through the famous Golden Gate. This is a strait about a mile in width in its narrowest part, and very deep. The proud Californians look out over this serene expanse and tell you that here is anchorage for the combined navies of the world, which, indeed, seems a very mild statement of the case. Aside from the immensity of this harbor facility it is interesting to notice that California's two big rivers, after traversing the great interior valley, flow into this bay. Thus nature has furnished two serviceable water-roads, leading from a most notable natural harbor into the very heart of a rich farming, mining and lumbering region. These rivers, the Sacramento and San Joaquin, are of the same commercial significance to California that the Hudson is to New York.

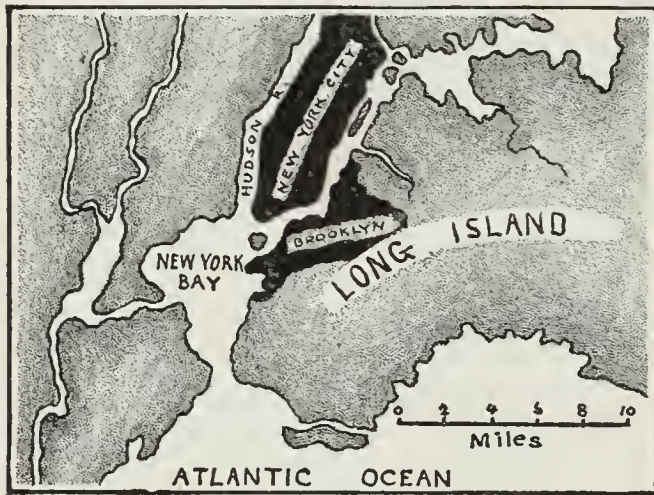
The harbor at San Francisco is the more noteworthy because it is the only one of first magnitude south of Puget Sound in the extreme northwestern part of the Union. Between these points, which, as you will see if you look at the map, are widely separated—California presents to the Orient an inhospitable cliff-coast, only occasionally broken by a little beach or minor inlet. Little coasting steamers make landings, it is true, at several points along this grim front; but it is a matter of considerable hazard. In some places along this coast great cranes, fixed upon the cliff, hoist people and freight ashore in baskets. And the daring little skipper must even then keep one eye to windward lest a crashing storm drive in upon him and forever terminate his service on the sea. Thus the two great harbors mentioned must for all time share the greater part of the Pacific Ocean commerce.\* One familiar with the Atlantic seaboard can parallel the situation by blotting out, in his mind's eye, all the ports between Savannah and Portland, save only New York. And between these, in place of the numerous hospitable inlets, substitute a scarcely broken sea-

\* San Diego, in the extreme south, has a fine landlocked harbor, more than 20 square miles in extent, and steamship connections with the Orient.



cliff. He will then have the conditions before him which give to San Francisco its pre-eminence.

But we have side-tracked the discussion by these speculations. What we really must do



NEW YORK HARBOR.

now is to cast up, in a general way, the various points that give importance to any harbor.

In the first place it must really *be* a harbor,—that is, it must be a body of deep water at least partly hidden behind some able-bodied peninsula that will hold at arm's length, so to speak, the fierce ocean storms; and it must have a deep channel, free from rocks, leading out to sea. But now, after we have our harbor, it is not enough. There must be something in the back country worth going after. Either gold, which started Melbourne and San Francisco in business, or hides and wheat, which have made Buenos Aires, or manufactured goods which have built up Liverpool. In short, the country round about must have something worth exporting before it can attract ships to its harbor and so build up a port. We might easily pick out, upon the map, some very good harbors which have never come into use, in any large way, because the back country has nothing in it that the world wants. The splendid fiords of Norway are examples of this sort.

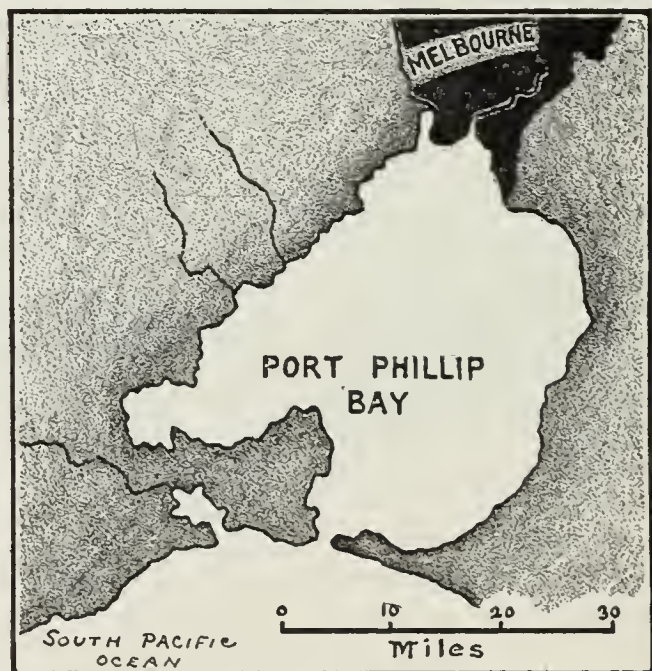
But, after all, Norway, aside from its lumber, which has built up a medium-sized town here and there, has nothing very much to offer the world except some codfish and the stout and honest hearts of its emigrants. And so those magnificent fiords, which, by the way, are only a variation of our geographical "bottle," remain grand and romantic and

lonely, with the memory of the ancient vikings haunting their solemn aisles.

On the other hand we have Africa, teeming with stuff that people want—ivory and gold and tropic fruits, but presenting that same forbidding cliff front that most of California does. In the days of exploration Vasco da Gama and the rest of them coasted along for many a weary day in hope deferred of seeing that inhospitable cliff break away and let them into some snug harbor. We have but to recall the late Boer war to see how very important is the port of Lourenço Marques in those parts—simply because it has the only real harbor for hundreds of miles, on either hand.

There is one thing yet to consider. There must not only be a productive country back of the harbor, but there must be a good road, or the possibility of one, leading from the harbor well up into that back country. Alaska, for example, has magnificent harbors all along the "Inside Passage" and also, she has plenty of gold in the back country. Her chief concern, at present, is about routes over the mountains from the mines to the ports.

The very best kind of a road that commerce has ever found to travel on is a deep and quiet



THE HARBOR OF MELBOURNE.

river—especially a river that leads from the sea, where the ships of all countries are sailing, far into a land that is rich in the things those countries want. If we now look over the

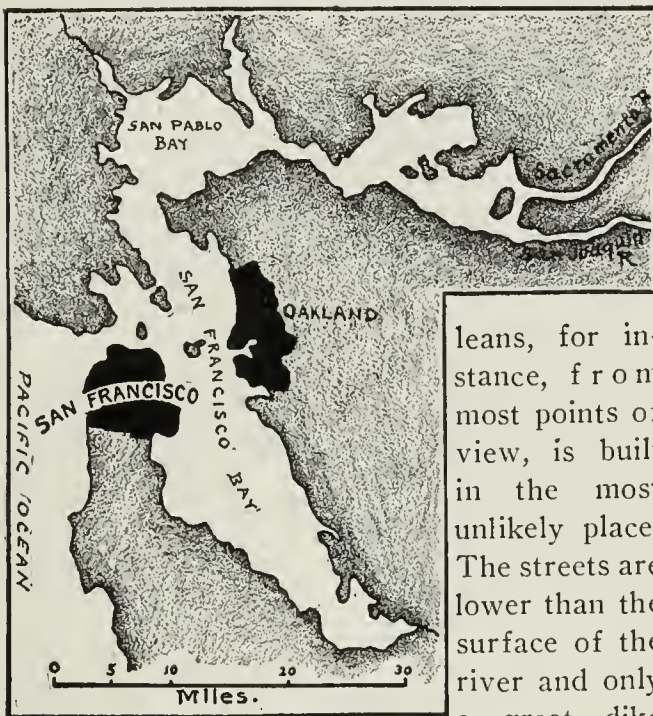


world map we shall see that wherever such a river reaches the sea a big seaport has grown up. We have Cairo on the Nile, and New Orleans on the Mississippi, and New York on the Hudson; Buenos Aires, the metropolis of the southern hemisphere, on the Plata; Para, young, lusty and hopeful, at the mouth of the Amazon; Hamburg on the Elbe; and so on, in an indefinite list. This matter of a good water-road inland is so important that often man has patched up some sort of a harbor where none existed so as to avail himself of one of these great waterways. New Or-

canal, enabled New York to outrace Philadelphia and become the metropolis. Philadelphia had the Delaware, and all the trade it could give, but it had no waterway through the mountains to the country in the west.

It is of interest, now, to see how Chicago got her start. Some of the histories make much ado over the "natural harbor" which the explorers found. But every one knows that that natural harbor was the mouth of the merest shred of a little muddy stream, reaching inland to nowhere in particular. It was all very well for a *canoe* harbor, into which the red man might paddle on the way to the portage. But so far as commerce is concerned, in the modern sense, if Chicago had had nothing but her "harbor" to start her in business, she would not be much of a town to-day. Chicago's fortune was based upon several factors, all working together, and the quiet little mud creek she grew up on was perhaps the least of them. So we find that sometimes the harbor makes the town, as in the case of San Francisco, and in other instances the town makes the harbor, as in Chicago.

In September, 1900, the whole world was thrilled with horror over the great disaster at Galveston. Here was a case in point. A prosperous city had grown up at that place because the rich Texas cotton region absolutely demanded a port out of which its product could be cheaply shipped. Galveston Bay was the best site that offered itself as a harbor. But this "bay" was merely a portion of the Gulf of Mexico, very insecurely partitioned off by a low sand-bar. An unusually heavy storm swept westward across the Gulf. The waters piled up along the Texas coast. They piled up over that low bar and drove irresistibly upon the doomed city. Similar catastrophes have happened before, in the Gulf. Off the Louisiana coast there once thrived a summer resort called Last Island. Although merely a sand-bar, a big summer hotel had been built upon it. This hotel was thronged with guests at the time of the disaster. The implacable waters, driven by a big outside storm, piled fearfully and steadily up; and in the morning only a mere vestige of the island itself served to mark the ill-fated pleasure-place.



THE HARBOR OF SAN FRANCISCO.

leans, for instance, from most points of view, is built in the most unlikely place. The streets are lower than the surface of the river and only a great dike of earth keeps the big stream from sweeping the city off the continent of North America. The city of New Orleans stands like a toll-gate, at the beginning of this long water-road up the center of our country. And in South America, Buenos Aires has a precisely similar station, as a glance at the map will show. New York got its start by the same condition. Here was the bay, an excellent harbor, and there was the Hudson, reaching back into a rich country; and there also was Long Island Sound, just as good, for trade purposes, as another river. And finally, along came De Witt Clinton, and others who made the Erie Canal, and so made the Hudson twice as much of a road by opening from it their "big ditch" into the Great Lakes. Historians tell us that this new waterway, the

# HOW PEPPER HELPED TO DISCOVER AMERICA

BY KLYDA RICHARDSON STEEGE

How would you like a pie not only sweetened and spiced but made hot with a sprinkling of pepper? or a cake full of fruit and also strongly peppered? I rather think you would call these things spoiled, and beg to have them made in a different way. If, however, we had lived some four or five hundred years ago, we should have thought, like every one else in those days, that no dish, sweet or otherwise, was complete without the pungent taste of pepper. No doubt it is as well for our digestions that we in these times like our food prepared in simpler fashion.

Perhaps it would surprise you to know that this taste for pepper, and the value which was once placed upon it, played an important part in the discovery of America. In case this last statement seems improbable, let me tell you something of the history of pepper, and its importance in the commerce of the world during the Middle Ages. There are a great many common things, you know, that have very interesting stories belonging to them, and they are generally worth hearing.

The native country of the pepper-plant is Southern India, and its culture there is very old. The berry, or peppercorn, which is ground for our use, is produced on vines which are trained against trees, very much as you may see the grape-vines in an Italian vineyard. The berries are dried in the sun and sent to market in bags. Black and white pepper are made from the same berries, but the black contains the ground husk, which the other does not. This addition of the husk gives the darker color and stronger flavor to black pepper.

The old Eastern nations, the Egyptians, the Greeks, and the Romans all knew and used a great many spices, and among them was always pepper. How soon it came to be so highly esteemed as it was in the Middle Ages is not certain; but as early as 410, when the great Northern conqueror, Alaric the Visigoth, besieged Rome, and was induced to retire by taking a ransom, three thousand pounds of pepper formed part of the treasure he carried away with him.

Later on, taxes began to be paid in pepper instead of in money, and the Jews, especially, who dealt largely in this, among other spices, were

obliged, in many cases, to give to the government so many pounds of it yearly. In the twelfth century, according to an old law, the Jews paid to the Pope a tribute of one pound of pepper and two pounds of cinnamon. From certain Provençal villages the archbishop received annually from one half to two pounds of pepper, in payment for allowing the Jews to have a copy of the book of their law, a synagogue, a lamp burning perpetually, and a cemetery. In 1385 the King of Provence imposed on the Jews in his dominions a tax of sixty pounds of pepper.

So much traffic in this spice came to the city of Alexandria that one of its streets and a gate were named for it; and as for Venice, an Italian proverb said, "*Il nero e il bianco hanno fatto ricca Venèzia*," which means, "The white and the black have made Venice rich." In other words, it was through the pepper and the cotton, brought from the East by the ships of Venice, and by her merchants sent all over Europe, that the city gained a large share of its vast wealth. In the fifteenth century pepper was the article, more than any other, that the Venetians sent to France, Flanders, England, and, above all, to Germany.

People used to make presents of pepper. Even kings and ambassadors gave and received it. When the republic of Venice wished to show special gratitude to the Emperor Henry V., they made him an annual gift of fifty pounds of it. After a victory gained by the people of Genoa in 1101, each soldier received as part of his pay two pounds of pepper.

In many countries there prevailed a curious system which obliged certain persons to furnish, at stated times, pepper in small quantities, in most cases about one pound. These payments were called "peppercorn rents," and the term has not entirely died out yet. In England the tax on pepper in 1623 was five shillings a pound, and even until the eighteenth century it amounted to two shillings and sixpence per pound.

You can easily imagine what a high price people had to pay for an article so much in demand, and what an enormous amount of it must have been used. I said that they put it even in sweet dishes, and, in fact, the rage for peppered food was so great that it was consid-



ered absolutely essential in every sauce. People would not have said then, "I haven't enough salt in my soup" or "on my meat," or "enough sugar in my pudding," but, "There isn't enough pepper."

In medieval days the spice trade formed the base of a large part of the commerce carried on, particularly between the East and Italy, and gave the name to it. There were a few merchants who sold nothing else but cinnamon, ginger, cloves, and such things, including, of course, pepper, and there were, in Paris, men known as *pevriers*, who dealt exclusively in pepper. Generally, however, a spice merchant enlarged his business to include a great many other things beside what we now call spices, and would sell olive-oil, dried fruits, medicines and perfumeries, paints and pigments, pearls, corals, minerals, metals, soap, and even paper; also, strange to say, he would be expected to keep on hand a stock of furs and skins. But spices were bought and sold in larger quantities than any of the other articles just mentioned, and were of greater importance. In France a grocer is still called an *épiciier*—a spice-merchant—which is, of course, the old name that has never been changed.

You must imagine yourself in the Middle Ages, and think of all the difficulties then connected with carrying on business. When our merchants want anything, there are swift ships and fast trains everywhere; all countries are open, and we can telegraph from one end of the earth to the other. The products of India and Africa are at our very doors, and we have only to ask to obtain them. But it has not always been so, and we ought to remember the long voyages taken, the weary searching made, the dangers from wild beasts and savage peoples encountered, before we, in our time, could obtain so comfortably and easily what seem to us only ordinary necessities.

Four and five hundred years ago there was, it is true, a great amount of luxury in France and Italy. People wore beautiful clothing, magnificent jewels, and ate choice food; art flourished, and science made great progress. But at what a cost were even the necessities of living obtained! From the far East to Europe, how long the journey was, and what months were consumed in bringing, over the deserts of Arabia, across the plains and mountains of Persia, under the burning sun of India, or in boats from Syrian and Turkish ports, the things which European civilization required. When we remember the difficulties of the medieval mer-

chants, we can understand one of the principal motives which led so many persons to search for new and shorter routes to the countries where the spices grew, and where the land was rich in products which would bring them wealth. It was the love of adventure and the desire to see new and strange places which started large numbers of the early voyagers, but it was, more than all, for commercial reasons that most of the expeditions were undertaken.

There is no need to tell American boys and girls anything about the men who discovered the different parts of their own country, but it is possible that you will like to hear about one or two of the persons who inspired those discoveries, and especially to know what part pepper had in leading travelers to new and unexplored regions.

In the year 1260 there passed through Constantinople two Venetians, named Maffeo and Niccoló Polo. They were on their way, as a matter of speculation, toward the East, and, by various chances and changes, went on until they reached Bokhara in Turkestan, where they felt a long way from home, and thought they had made a great journey. But here they fell in with certain envoys on a mission to Cathay, or China, and bound to the court of the great monarch Kublai Khan. The two brothers were induced to accompany them, and thus became, as far as we know, the first European travelers to reach China. There is no time to tell of how they found Kublai Khan at a place called Cambaluc (the old name of Peking), just rebuilt by him, or of his beautiful country-seat at Shangtu, north of the Great Wall. But some day, when you read those lines which Coleridge left unfinished, and which begin—

In Xanadu did Kubla Khan  
A stately pleasure-dome decree,

you might remember the visit the two Venetians paid the place.

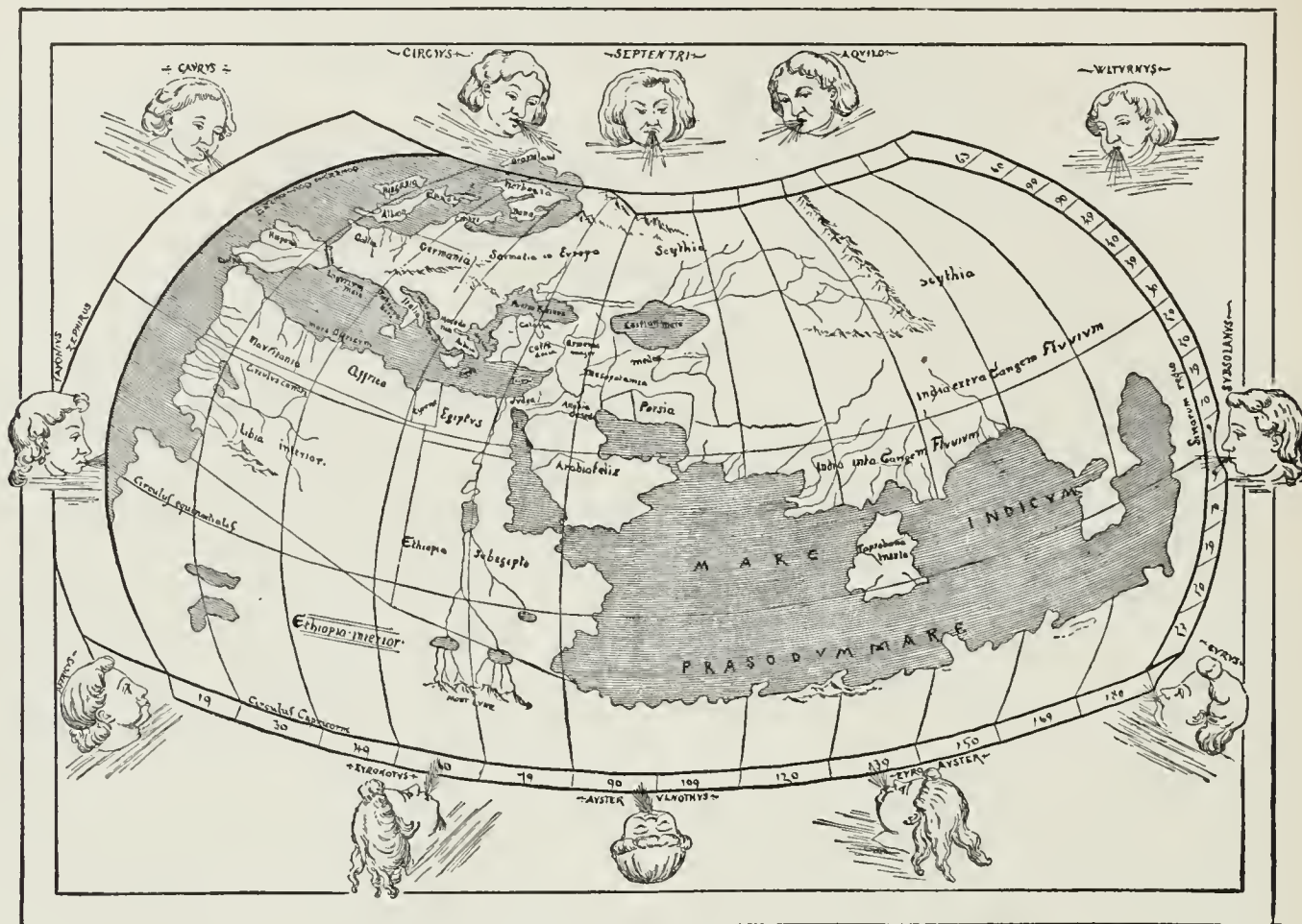
The Chinese monarch was delighted to meet these intelligent men from the distant and civilized West, and when they went home he made them his messengers to the Pope, begging them to return with teachers and missionaries from Europe. After a long time they did reach China again, having visited home in the meanwhile, and although they had not succeeded in having the teachers sent, they brought with them Niccoló's son Marco, then fifteen years old, who became the famous traveler and the first European explorer to write a book about what he

had seen. If you have not done so yet, you should read it.

When you read his book, you will notice how often he speaks of the spices of the Eastern

for one ship which left India with a cargo of pepper to be sent on to Alexandria, a hundred or more went to China.

Marco Polo's book made a great impression



EARLY FIFTEENTH-CENTURY MAP OF THE WORLD.

This map is a copy of a very beautiful one made in the early part of the fifteenth century, and now preserved in the famous library of San Lorenzo, at Florence. When you look at it you will see what a small part of the world was known in those days, and what curious ideas people must have had of the relative positions and sizes of different countries. Notice, for instance, the place occupied by India, and see how the land shuts in the Indian Ocean.

You must remember that this and all other maps of the period were drawn largely from imagination and a slight amount of actual knowledge. But they were founded on the measurements and speculations of a famous Egyptian philosopher and geographer, called Ptolemy, who lived in the second century, and who left very extensive writings. Although in the copies of his works there were no drawings of

maps to be found, it is certain that such drawings were made, and he left most accurate directions for future scholars to follow. So, from his time until the discoveries of the great navigators, what was called, from this early geographer, the Ptolemaic system of geography was the best and only system known.

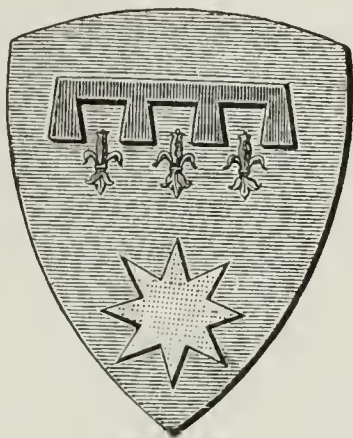
Some of the names on this map may puzzle you, for they are the old ones by which the people of the Middle Ages knew the countries. But you will be able to make out a good many of them. You will see the island of Ceylon called *Taprobane*, the Straits of Gibraltar, *Calpe*; *Gallia* and *Albion*, of course, you will recognize as France and England, since the names are not unknown to-day, and a little study will soon show you how the different countries were supposed to be placed.

countries, and how he mentions pepper as one of the most important articles of commerce in those lands. The Chinese, at that time, valued pepper so much that they willingly paid fifteen ducats for a bushel, and Marco Polo says that

on his fellow-countrymen, and the interest already felt in the unexplored East was largely increased by reading his stories. One traveler after another sailed from the different ports of Italy, and made voyages, more or less success-



ful, in various directions. As at this time the principal traffic of Europe came through Venice, the Venetians were the first to interest themselves in expeditions to distant countries. Every year a Venetian squadron passed through the Straits of Gibraltar, and stopped at Lisbon on the way to England and Flanders. The sailors told stories of the Eastern countries with which



ARMS OF THE TOSCANELLI FAMILY.

their city carried on commerce, and the Portuguese and Spaniards were the next to catch the exploring fever, and began to make voyages of exploration for themselves. They went down the west coast of Africa, making their own one bit of territory after another, until, as you know, Vasco da Gama sailed quite around the Cape of Good Hope, and showed that path to India.

Prince Henry of Portugal, himself a navigator, was largely responsible for these African discoveries, and he was influenced by Marco Polo's book to attempt his own expeditions and encourage those of others.

Here in Portugal pepper was again of importance, for it is said that the desire to find it by an easy and cheap route, and thus to reduce its price, was one of the reasons why the Portuguese were so anxious to get to India by sea. Its price was certainly lowered after the merchants began to bring it directly from India and Ceylon in ships; and it became a monopoly of the Portuguese crown, continuing so until the eighteenth century. About this time the culture of pepper was extended to the Malay Archipelago, and part of the traffic was turned naturally from Italy to Portugal, as being in more direct communication.

Now let us go back a little, and this time to Florence, one of the greatest commercial cities of the past, particularly during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Her merchants were of the richest in the world, and certain trades and arts flourished there as nowhere else.

Among these merchant families was one called Toscanelli, and they carried on business in "spices" and in the other articles usually coming under that head in those days. They sent in every direction for their goods, and every year visited the old Italian town called Lanciano, where was held the great fair of spices, and where merchants came to buy and sell from all countries of Europe, and even from Asia. Here one would be sure to find many travelers, and to hear many stories of strange lands and little known peoples, and here, no doubt, great impetus was given to research in new directions.

The Toscanelli family were rich, and owned a great deal of property in Florence, and a street in the city still bears their name. There is, too, a fine old villa, not far away, which belonged to them five hundred years ago. But they are remembered especially for one famous representative of their name, and he was a man whom Americans should hold in great regard. Well known and esteemed in his own day, Paolo del Pozzo Toscanelli has almost been forgotten since by the world in general, until comparatively recent times. However, in 1871, at the meeting in Antwerp of the Geographical Congress, all the scholars, historians, and scientists present unanimously agreed in calling him the inspirer of the discovery of America. He died in 1482, ten years before Columbus touched the shores of the New World; but it was by the chart he drew, and according to his plans, that the great Genoese laid his course.

Toscanelli lived out the whole of his long life in Italy, a hard student, a skilful physician, and a remarkable scientist. He was the founder of modern astronomy, and was the first to mention some of the comets best known to later astronomers. His knowledge of mathematics was profound, and his interest in geographical researches intense. There is still, in the Cathedral of Florence, the gnomon, or sun-dial, he made, and it has been considered the most perfect in existence.

On the death of his brother, he took the place almost of a father to his nephews, and, as they carried on the business, he interested himself largely in their success. It was for their sake that, aside from his scientific interest in the voyages of the day, he began to think and plan new routes and ways to the country of the spices. The Turks were interfering with the introduction into Venice, and thus into Italy, of the products of India, and merchants of Florence were beginning to feel the effect of this obstacle to commerce, when Toscanelli de-

clared it possible to reach the East by sailing west. On the chart which he made he traced a line from Lisbon, across the sea to Quin-sai (Han-chau), on the Chinese coast; and in a letter which he wrote on June 25, 1474, to his friend Christopher Columbus, he explained his ideas and theories regarding the voyage.

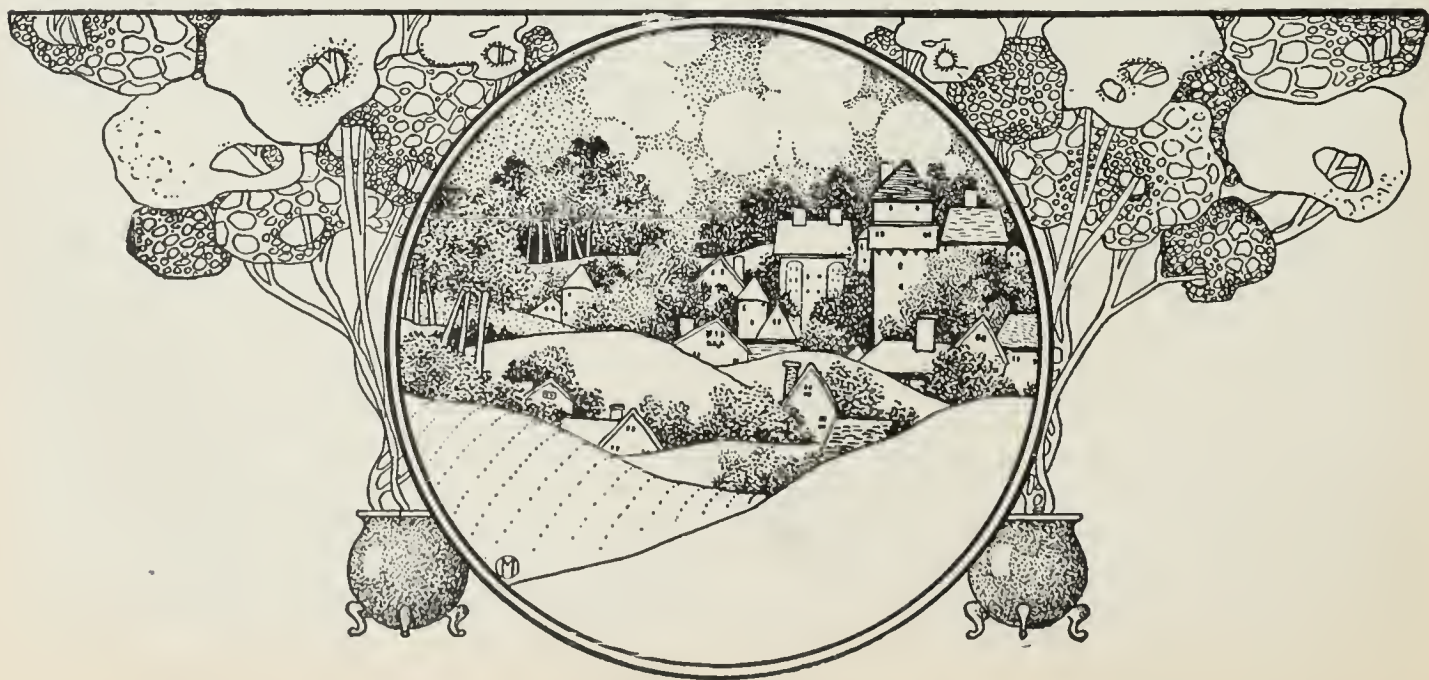
At the same time that Toscanelli sent this letter to Columbus (who was then at Lisbon), he also wrote to another person a letter to be given to the King of Portugal. In this letter, among other things, he said:

"Many other times I have reasoned concerning the very short route which there is by way of the sea from here to India,—the native land of the spices,—and which I hold to be shorter than that which you take by Guinea. For greater clearness of explanation, I have made a chart such as is used by navigators, on which is traced this route, and I send it to your Majesty. . . . I have depicted everything from Ireland at the north as far south as Guinea, with the islands and countries, and I will show how you may reach the places most productive of all sorts of spices. Also I have shown in this chart many countries in the neighborhood of India, where, if no contrary winds or misadventures arise, you will find islands where all the inhabitants are merchants. Especially is there a most noble port, called Zaitou, where they load and unload every year a hundred great ships with pepper, and there are also other ships, laden with other spices. This place is thickly populated, and there are cities and provinces without number, under the rule of a prince, called the Great Khan, which name means 'King of Kings.' . . . Here you will find not only very great gain and

many rich things, but also gold and silver and precious stones, and all sorts of spices in great abundance. . . . From the city of Lisbon you may sail directly to the great and noble city of Quin-sai, where are ten bridges of marble, and the name of the place signifies 'City of Heaven.' Of it are told most marvelous things of its buildings, of its manufactures and of its revenues. This city lies near the province of Cathay, where the king spends the greater part of his time. . . . You have heard of the island of Antilla, which you call the Seven Cities, and of the most noble island of Cipango, which is rich in gold, pearls, and precious stones, and the temples and royal palaces are covered with plates of gold. . . . Many other things could be said, but I will not be too long. . . . And so I remain always most ready to serve your Majesty in whatever you may command me."

With such ideas as these in his mind, you know why Columbus thought he was landing in the Orient when he stepped ashore on the island of San Salvador. He had even brought with him a letter and fitting gifts for the Great Khan, or Emperor of Cathay.

To-day pepper grows in many countries besides those of the East, though the best still comes from India, and a great deal of business is carried on in its cultivation, preparation, and exportation. It has become an ordinary thing to us, and we expect it on the table as a matter of course. Perhaps, however, when you remember its old importance, and that the trade in this spice really did help to lead voyagers toward America, you will regard it as something much more interesting than a mere everyday addition to your food.







# MEXICO, CENTRAL AMERICA, AND THE WEST INDIES

## MEXICO AND CENTRAL AMERICA

LET us sail in imagination with Columbus about the Caribbean Sea, and picture to ourselves the clear water, and the lovely islands and shores that enclose it. Then let us pass into the neighboring gulf, to mount into the country of Mexico, to look at the irregularly shaped bridge of land, Central America, that joins the great north and south continents of the New World.

Let us look carefully at the shape of the gulf, into which the Father of Waters, the Mississippi, and the Great River of the North, the Rio Grande del Norte, pour the southern drainage of North America. The two peninsulas of Yucatan and Florida shut it in like doors, and Cuba lies between them. Columbus, in his journal, wrote of Cuba: "This is the most beautiful island eyes ever beheld. One could live here forever."

Let us notice, too, the way in which the vast bulk of North America tapers through Mexico to Central America. We must next make sure that we see clearly that Central America consists of four narrow isthmuses, with bulging masses of land between them. The most important of the four are Tehuantepec, 125 miles across, where North America ends, though Yucatan and a small neighboring state are included in Mexico, and Panama, only about 35 miles across, beyond which South America begins. Then let us pause for a moment's thought about the mighty mountain chain stretching, under different names, for thousands of miles from Alaska in the far north, to the extreme tip of the pear-shaped southern continent. There are many volcanoes in this long chain, especially about the middle of it, in Central America and Mexico. At Panama the great heights sink to about 3000 feet and the pass, or saddle, between these low mountains is less than 300 feet high. To the west of the mountains lies the vast expanse of the Pacific Ocean.

Four hundred years ago no one could have given this simple description of the position of Mexico and Central America. Columbus died fully believing that the land he discovered was part of Asia; it was only by degrees, as his successors cruised about the low-lying shores of the gulf and the sea, as they caught glimpses of the ocean beyond, as they sought, ever in vain, to find a way for their ships through Central America to that ocean, that the truth came to them that they were not on the fringe of Asia, but on a great continent which lay between them and their desires. How one envies them the first entrancing sight of the Pacific Ocean from Panama!

### THE GOLDEN LAND THAT LAY BEYOND THE WESTERN SEAS

Wonderful rumors spread by these adventurous spirits soon reached Cuba, one of the first islands settled by the Spaniards. There were stories of massive temples and great stone idols; of large towns with thousands of busy workers; of people with rich clothes and great possessions in gold and silver and jewels.

All these, they said, were to be found inland from the shores of the gulf. Daring deeds were daily occurrences in the sixteenth century, but one of the most romantic and desperate expeditions ever planned and carried out was that of the brilliant Spanish commander, Cortés, to test the truth of these rumors, and to annex whatever he might find for his emperor, Charles V. of Spain, just twenty years after the death of Columbus.

Eleven ships, carrying 400 Europeans, 200 natives, 16 horses, and 14 guns, seems but a small force with which to attempt a passage into an unknown land. But Cortés, who wrote history with his sword, knew no fear, and pushed for-

ward in spite of all obstacles. We long to follow him every foot of the way, but must be content with glimpses of his bravery and dash; with the mere mention of the shipwrecked captive Spaniard and the lovely native girl who acted as interpreters.

As the wonderful story unfolds, we see the founding of the port of the True Cross—Vera Cruz—the friendliness of the tribes near the coast, the famous beaching and burning of all the ships, save one, that had brought the expedition, so that none could retreat. The best one was spared to send home to Spain with news and specimens of the work and treasures of the country. On and on toiled the party from the hot, unhealthy lands by the sea, with their tangle of tropical vegetation, up the rugged country which leads by high terrace steps to the great plateau of Mexico, 7000 feet and more above the level of the sea.

What a treat was the pure, cool air, the grand sight of the snow-topped volcanoes before them, and how astonished were the travelers at the prickly cactus hedges, and the cultivated fields and fine forests and lakes, and the wealth of bright flowers on every side! Surely the plateau and its ridges of mountains must have reminded the Spaniards of their far-away home country, and given them courage to venture on, so as to add to her dominions and glory.

Montezuma, the ruler of this fair country, belonging to the Aztec or Mexican race, had more than once sent presents and messages to Cortés, begging him to go away. But Cortés went steadily on till he reached the city of Tenochtitlan, the ancient city of Mexico, on the great lakes that lay in the midst of the plateau.

### TERROR OF THE AZTECS WHEN THE WHITE MEN CAME

The Aztecs were terrified at the pale faces of the Spaniards, at the horses and guns, none of which they had seen before, and they seem almost to have believed that Cortés was the white war-god of their legends come back as he had promised centuries before, for the guns appeared to them to flash lightning, and the horses to travel like the wind. If Cortés was disappointed with Tenochtitlan, he did not say so in his letters home, but enlarged on the glory and splendor of the city, its temples and buildings, its cypress-crowned hill, Chapultepec, with its magnificent view.

It was not long before Cortés got Montezuma entirely into his power. So great was the tact

and resource of the great commander, that it seemed as if all were about to be peaceably arranged for the transfer of the country and its government. But Cortés had to return for a time to Vera Cruz, and his deputy at Tenochtitlan enraged the Aztec people with his cruelty. Cortés returned only just in time to save his forces from utter destruction. Montezuma, still a prisoner, was persuaded by the Spaniards to speak to his subjects, and urge them to stay their attack on the strangers. An impressive sight he must have looked standing on the flat roof of the palace, dressed in his blue and white mantle, his blazing jewels, fine crown, and golden sandals dazzling in the sun. But the moment of surprised stillness caused by his appearance passed, and the furious people, refusing to listen longer, flung arrows and stones in a great tumult. Montezuma—their King—was fatally wounded during this encounter. The day after his death, when things looked black indeed for the Spaniards, Cortés cut his way out of the capital in the darkness. This was known as the "sad night." Men and horses perished in numbers on the narrow path by the waters of the canal and lake, and, when the remnant gathered together in the country beyond, Cortés wept tears of despair.

But the genius of the leader shone only the brighter for this check. Somehow he managed to rally his forces, and within a week he utterly defeated the brave Aztecs, who came out to withstand him. They fled in confusion, more than ever convinced that he must be a god, and not a mere man. Within eight months, by means of help from neighboring tribes, and by unheard-of efforts in organizing an army and arranging for its keep and transport, the beautiful plateau of Mexico, with its ruined capital, Tenochtitlan, was under the power of Cortés. When the town rose again by the lake, it was as the City of Mexico.

The country, for a while, was put under military rule, and became part of the huge dominions which so oppressed the weary emperor, Charles V. of Spain, Austria, and the Netherlands. Cortés was not content with these successes. He made many explorations in Central America, always hoping to find a way through to the Pacific.

By degrees more colonies for Spain were founded, in Yucatan and Honduras, and in other parts of the land, whose secrets were revealed by the energy of the great commander and his officers. Cortés even pushed up the long, narrow Gulf of California, and before long the Spaniards had also found their way far beyond the plateau of Mexico in all directions. The history of the peoples whom the Spaniards found in

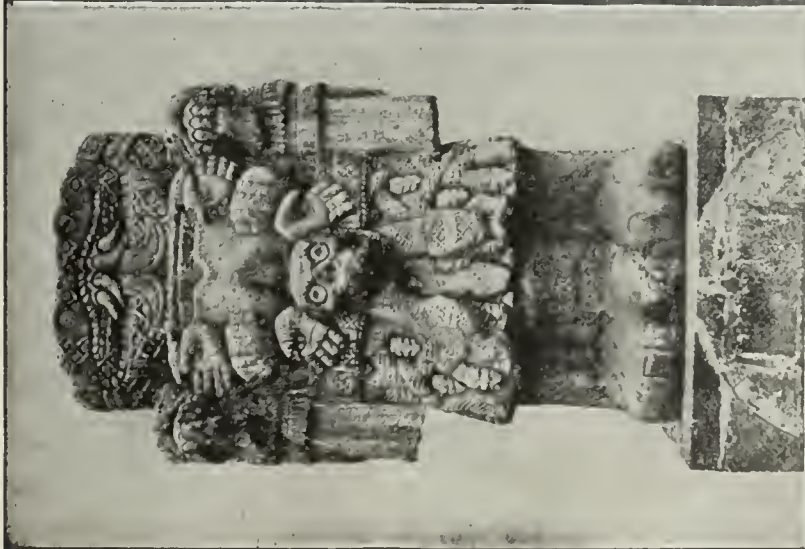




GODDESS OF THE WATERS.  
CHACMOOL STATUE.



AZTEC DIVINITIES.  
GODDESS OF THE MOON.



THE DIVINITY OF DEATH.  
SACRIFICIAL STONE.



Mexico and Central America has not yet been fully unraveled. Scholars are still at work studying the wonderful ruins of temples that are discovered from time to time, the carvings on great stone idols and altars, and the picture writing on various relics. Some of these we can see for ourselves in museums, and interesting it is indeed to trace resemblances in them to the work of other countries, such as Egypt and Babylon and China.

### MYSTERY OF THE FIRST PEOPLE WHO SETTLED IN AMERICA

Where the first people came from to settle in America, we know not, but the remains found on the soil show that, through the long centuries before the vast lands were discovered by Europeans, different races of people had lived and died on them for generation after generation. Sometimes they destroyed the works of those who went before them; sometimes they grafted their own stock and works upon those of their predecessors. In time we hope to understand more about these shadowy tribes; about the Toltecs and their interesting legends; about the Mayas and their high civilization; about the Aztecs and their curious picture-writing, and their settlements on the plateau of Mexico after centuries of wandering.

When Cortés went to Honduras, he passed, all unknowingly, a wonderful palace of the Mayas, hidden by the thick growth of trees and shrubs. As relics are found they are carefully studied, with a view to trace the various customs, beliefs, and histories of the old peoples and tribes who for thousands of years had been making progress in civilization, not only unknown to the dwellers in the Old World, but equally strange and unknown in many cases to other dwellers in their own world, which we have come to call the New.

### ZEAL OF THE SPANIARDS TO CONVERT THE AZTECS

As we know, the Spaniards classed the natives they found in the New World all together under the mistaken name of Indians. Now, the civilization and conversion to the Christian faith of these so-called Indians was one of the chief objects of the Spanish conquerors. Bands of devoted missionaries went out from Europe to the new possessions to teach the natives to give up their wild, roving life and the heathen customs of

their religion, such as offering human sacrifices to idols.

Cortés himself did his best to persuade Montezuma to accept Christianity, but the Aztec chief was only puzzled by the new ideas so hastily thrust upon him. Everywhere, in the first zeal of overthrowing heathenism, idols and temples, inscriptions and carvings were cast down, buried, defaced; so that the task of finding out the truth about the past has been made even harder than it might have been.

But, deep as is the wonder and interest of the story of the old New World; of the early peoples in Mexico and Central America, as shown by the works of their hands; and romantic as is the story of the introduction of the natives to the Spaniards, the growth of the country under Spain is still more interesting; and even more thrilling and romantic than the conquest of Cortés are the events of the last hundred years.

### TERRIBLE CRUELITIES OF THE SPANISH CONQUERORS

As the years passed on, the native races settled down—after many difficulties—to the new religion and the new rulers. The burning of victims, under the terrible Inquisition of the Christians, must have seemed to the Mexicans strangely like the sacrifices offered to the cruel gods of their forefathers, and all sorts of superstitions belonging to the old faith were grafted on to the new. Viceroys were sent out from Spain during three centuries to govern—or misgovern—in the king's name, sixty-four of them in all.

Some were good and kind, some terribly the reverse. Throughout these years the missionary priests were hard at work trying to influence the natives toward a spirit of quiet obedience; the religion they offered them did not teach them to think for themselves. Many beautiful towns were founded after Spanish models, with Spanish names and fine cathedrals; schools and colleges rose up in them, and Spanish families went out to make new homes in the Far West.

Roads and bridges made travel and trade easier. As agriculture was extended and improved, mining and forestry were developed, and the raising of cattle then became an important industry. Both Mexico and Central America offer vast possibilities in all these directions. Round the tropical lowlands, rice, sugar, cocoa, and cotton grow easily. On the rising terraces, coffee, Indian corn, and tobacco find suitable conditions, and wheat-fields lead up to the grassy





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#### SCENES IN MEXICO.

UPPER: VIEW OF MONTEREY, MEXICO.

LOWER: CHAPULTEPEC CASTLE, CITY OF MEXICO. FORMER SITE OF MONTEZUMA'S PALACE.



downs, which make good pasture land for the cattle and the splendid horses, for which the country gradually became famous as the years went by.

### VAST RICHES FOUND IN MEXICAN FORESTS AND MINES

The magnificent forests abound with every valuable kind of tree, from the rubber-tree to the mahogany. As for the mines, Mexico is rich in various kinds of metal—silver, gold, copper, and lead, among many others. Sulphur is obtained from the crater of the smoking mountain Popocatepetl. Another remarkable volcano is Jorullo, thrown up by an earthquake in a single night in 1759, from fertile fields of sugar and indigo.

In time many Spaniards intermarried with the natives, particularly in Central America; and so many great men of these countries are descended from the conquered, as well as from the conquerors, and a large mixed nation has grown up, with a certain number of pure-blooded Spaniards at the top of society, and many natives "of no account" at the bottom. New Spain gradually came to include nearly all the country round the Gulf of Mexico, and reached out northward to California, though the outlying districts were very thinly peopled.

Spain ever needed all she could get out of her distant provinces, for her wars at home were constant in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Under some viceroys the taxes were excessive, and the people were oppressed in order to send riches to Spain; but under other viceroys the rule was milder and sometimes even indulgent.

### HOW PATRIOTS BEGAN THE WAR FOR MEXICO'S FREEDOM

When the feeling of revolt against tyranny was voiced in different countries, and the longing for independence and freedom ever grew stronger, until it found expression in the American and French revolutions, Mexico also realized its hardships. A time of struggle began against rule from overseas, which lasted for many years. Hidalgo, born five years after the time of the Boston tea-party, was one of the first Mexicans to say boldly that he wanted Mexico to be Mexico, not a helpless dependency of Spain.

When he and his little band of friends dared to raise their banner with the cry, "Up with true religion; down with false government!" it was

an unheard-of thing that any ordinary man of the country—not appointed by Spain to office—should venture even to express an opinion. Hidalgo, a man of the people, boldly worked for government by the people. The end of a most exciting campaign of nine months was apparent failure, for Hidalgo and his companions were taken prisoners and shot, and their heads for ten years remained fixed on spikes at the corners of a large building in Guanajuato, a rich and flourishing city in the second largest mining province in Mexico.

The people who lived in those times no doubt thought Hidalgo had failed. We who live a hundred years later know that he succeeded gloriously in awaking his countrymen, and preparing the ground for the great struggle that was coming. To-day, in front of the building where his dead lips preached to all that passed by, stands a bronze statue of "Hidalgo, the first liberator of his country."

The next great name is that of Morelos, who, three years after the execution of Hidalgo, was leading the Independents from victory to victory, on the Pacific coast, in the picturesque country of lower levels, shaded with the banana and orange trees, and on the higher plateau, taking towns or defending them, forming a congress, and sending out a declaration of independence, as their northern neighbors had done some years before.

But the tide turned, and in 1815, six months after Napoleon lost his last battle, Morelos, who had much of the ability, without the opportunities, of the upsetter of the peace of Europe, was in his turn taken prisoner and shot. The Royalists hoped that now the troublesome new ideas were stamped out. How little they knew! The heroic, patriotic Morelos, whom they treated with insult and shot, is now adored by the Mexican people. They know that the attention of the mass of the people, first awakened by Hidalgo, was fully aroused by the life and sacrifice of Morelos. He showed them, as well as the world looking on, that the old Mexican blood was capable of great deeds, and that freedom for the country was no mere dream.

We look in vain on the map for the city in which he was born under the name it bore at that time, Valladolid, for it has since been renamed Morelia, after its greatest citizen.

For some time after the death of Morelos, ideas of independence worked and grew chiefly in secret, in the mountains and in far-off spots. Presently a change came about, which gave the Mexicans a chance to ask for more freedom.



JOY WHEN MEXICO WAS FREED FROM  
THE YOKE OF SPAIN

When the King of Spain was obliged to give way to liberal demands in the mother country, to abolish the hated Inquisition, to give freedom to the press, great rejoicings took place in the colonies, and a new leader appeared on the scene—Iturbide, of Mexican blood, hitherto an officer in the Royalist army. A wide-spread revolution burst out all over the country, in which not only the insurgents took part, but many of the Spanish as well as Mexican chiefs, who declared for independence.

Iturbide hastened to meet the last governor ever sent from Spain at Vera Cruz, and soon convinced him that his services were not needed as viceroy. The outcome of their conference was the Treaty of Cordova, which settled the independence of Mexico. Iturbide made a triumphal entry into the capital at the head of the Independents, and so ended, amidst scenes of wild enthusiasm and rejoicings, the Spanish rule three hundred years after the arrival of Cortés.

The present national flag, with its white for purity, green for union, red for independence, stands for the three articles of the national faith settled at this time. The device of the eagle and serpent on a cactus-bush refers to an old story connected with the settlement of the old Aztec tribes on the plateau. Many Spaniards went home now, and opinions were greatly divided among those who remained as to whether the government should be a monarchy or a republic. Iturbide, who had much love of splendor and state, as well as personal ambition, managed to arrange his position as Emperor of Mexico, but only for a few months.

In the end he, too, was sentenced to be shot; but after his execution, when angry feeling had subsided, his faults and failings were forgotten, and his countrymen recognized that it was his act that had freed Mexico from the control of Spain. Over the house of his birthplace—he was a fellow-townsmen of Morelos—is the inscription: *Libertador de Mexico*, meaning *Liberator of Mexico*.

A very confused time followed. Revolutions and different forms of constitutions and plans of government rapidly followed each other. There was one man, whose name stands out in the confusion, who was mixed up in every event of these troublous years. This was Santa Anna, first making his name as a soldier fighting in the wars of independence and expelling the Royalists from Vera Cruz, when Spain made its first and last at-

tempt to win back Mexico. He was elected president in 1833.

It was about that time that troubles began with Texas, now our great State on the Gulf of Mexico. Three hundred families had gone to colonize it from Mexico a few years before, and a large number of Americans had also settled there on grants of land. An insurrection against the oppressive Mexican government broke out, which ended in the Texans becoming independent for a period of about ten years, and then Texas was annexed to the United States by treaty, and admitted to the Union very soon after.

THE WAR BETWEEN MEXICO AND THE  
UNITED STATES ABOUT TEXAS

Many people in the United States were against this annexation, because the laws of Texas allowed slavery; also many people in the States thought a war with Mexico would follow if Texas were annexed, as Mexico had never given up hope of reconquering that State. These opponents were soon seen to be right, and Mexico and the United States were quickly at war. In due time, also, the annexation of so much slave country upset the balance in the United States, and helped to bring on, some years later, the dreadful Civil War between North and South, which settled the slavery question forever.

The Mexican War did not last very long. The American troops were well armed and disciplined, and fought steadily. The Mexicans were brave, too, but the long course of revolutions had spoiled both officers and men, and they could not hold their own.

Santa Anna, through these years, had very varied experiences; at one time general in the field, then head of the government, then in retirement at Havana, then back again to help his country when in dire straits. But his eloquence and enthusiasm, his power of raising money and troops, were all in vain. Vera Cruz was taken, beautiful Pueblo, with its many-colored tiles glittering in the sun, fell without a blow; even the City of Mexico, the capital, was occupied, when the hill of Chapultepec, so connected with old Mexican history, had been taken after a terrific struggle.

Santa Anna was there in the most exposed places; the brave boys of the military college on Chapultepec were there, receiving their first lesson in actual warfare. It was indeed a terrible day, with the horrid noise of war and the booming of cannon mingled with the frantic ringing of church bells in the city, encouraging the Mexicans to think that the victory was theirs. The

bells were silenced when the shouts of the Americans cheered the tearing down of the old colors and the running up of the new on the stronghold, the ancient hill of Chapultepec. This was practically the end of the Texan War.

### BAD VENTURE OF NAPOLEON III.

After peace had come to the long-distracted country, there was a short time of quiet, when reforms were beginning to take effect, and then troubles and quarrels broke out again. These were bad enough for three European Powers to make them an excuse for interference. England and Spain soon withdrew their remonstrances, but Napoleon III., wishing for military glory, managed to set up a European prince, Maximilian of Austria, brother of Emperor Francis Joseph, as Emperor of Mexico, to be supported by the arms of France. His short reign of three years is indeed a tragic story. With his young and charming wife, Carlotta, Maximilian set up a gay court in the beautiful palace, restored and furnished in grand style, on the famous hill of Chapultepec. The National Museum in the city close by holds the heavy silver plate, the great glass coach, and many other gorgeous reminders of the brilliant days that passed like a dream, with dinners and dance, and fêtes under the fine trees and among the wealth of sweet roses. The native President Juarez withdrew on Maximilian's entry to the north of Mexico, and bided his time.

Suddenly there came a crash. The Civil War was raging in the United States while Napoleon III. made his schemes, and our people were fully occupied for a time. As soon as it was over, they hastened to remind France that the countries of Europe had no right to interfere with the nations of the American continent, and that they could not recognize a monarchy in Mexico. Napoleon was afraid to venture on a war with the United States, so he was compelled to withdraw the help in money and soldiers he had promised to Maximilian, to keep him on the throne that he had persuaded him to accept.

The poor Empress Carlotta rushed off to Europe to try what personal pleading would do with Napoleon and with the Pope, but she failed to move either. The strain and sorrow of it sent her out of her mind, and she never recovered. Maximilian refused to give up the throne or to leave the country. He was taken prisoner and shot.

### THE CAREER OF PORFIRIO DIAZ

As the French left the country, and the empire they had created drew to its tragic end, one of

the greatest of Mexican leaders was making his way to the front. This was General Porfirio Diaz, who took possession of the capital for the Liberals in 1867. Less than a month later the patient, long-enduring Juarez entered it in solemn state. Four years after the death of Juarez, Santa Anna died, poor, blind, and neglected. Though possessing great bravery and military skill, he had always been turbulent and difficult, and often did his country harm instead of good.

Diaz became president first in 1877, and held many long terms of office, working hard, and, in many ways, successfully, for the benefit of his country. He, too, lived at Chapultepec, where he looked down from the cypress shade on the beautiful wide view, on the lakes and distant volcanoes, whose snowy tops blush rosy-red in the sunset, and on the city spreading in every direction. Many were the reforms and schemes for improvements that he carried through. Strenuous were the efforts he made to pay off debts, to extend trade and industries, to improve the water-supply, to make the most of the rich soil and fine climate, the vast space and rich minerals with which Mexico is blessed.

For many years Diaz had the support of his most influential countrymen, and of the majority of the Mexican people. But at last, in 1911, a successful revolution was led by Francisco I. Madero. Diaz resigned and left the country, and Madero was elected to succeed him in the presidency.

### HOW THE TRAIN NOW RUNS WHERE CORTÉS LED HIS ARMY

Railways now connect the United States with Mexico, and the iron horse climbs the romantic route of Cortés and his train, from the coast to the plateau, by means of most difficult engineering. A great line is also built across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, connecting the Atlantic and Pacific, and lines also cross the other isthmuses of Central America. Spanish rule lasted in Mexico for about three centuries, and was thrown off early in the nineteenth century. Several independent republics have since been formed: Guatemala and Nicaragua, Honduras, Costa Rica, Salvador, and Panama. None of these is a large country. Their productions are very like those of Mexico. Both earthquakes and revolutions are very common occurrences in Central America.

There is a railway across the narrowest isthmus—Panama—but the need for ships to pass direct from ocean to ocean has long been pressing, and is at last to be supplied by means of the





MAXIMILIAN AND CARLOTTA.  
EMPEROR AND EMPRESS OF MEXICO.

Panama Canal, about which we tell you in another place.

Cortés and the rest gazed ardently on the Pacific from Panama, and did their best to find a natural passage to it through Central America. They would have been filled with wonder at the

sight of this artificial river, whose completion will realize their dream—a way made by the anxious thought of hosts of engineers, and the labor of thousands of workmen, by which ships shall at last pass direct from one ocean to the other.

## THE WEST INDIES

THE Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea are partially enclosed on the east by a large number of islands, which are known as the West Indies. These stretch, in the form of a curve, from the coast of Florida to the northern shores of South America. The whole group may be divided into three smaller groups, namely, the Bahamas, the Greater Antilles, and the Lesser Antilles.

Some of these were at one time part of the mainland, but most of them have been raised from the ocean-floor above sea-level, either by volcanic action, or by the gradual building of the coral insect. Nearly all are mountainous, and we can imagine these islands as being the summits of a range of mountains joining the two continents.

The West Indies were the first parts of the New World to be discovered, and from the time of their discovery they have often changed owners. The Spaniards at first held the greater part, but gradually they have all passed out of their hands. Many of the islands are now independent, while the remainder are divided chiefly between England and France.

Among the many islands which form the West Indies, Cuba and Jamaica may be mentioned as the chief. Cuba, the largest and wealthiest island in the group, has an area about the same as that of Tennessee. It lies about a hundred miles south of Florida. It was one of the first parts of the New World to be claimed by Columbus for Spain, and it was the last of the colonies to be taken out of the hands of that nation. For over four centuries it remained under Spanish rule, but, in the second half of the nineteenth century, owing to oppression and bad government, it fell into a state of decay and rebellion. In 1898 the United States forcibly took it from Spain and governed it till 1902, when the Cuban people set up a republican form of government for themselves.

The coast-line is extremely indented, and is studded with countless islands. The whole length of the island is traversed with mountain ranges, the summit of which is Turquino Peak, about 8400 feet high. These heights lead gradually

down in terraces to the coast-plains, which are drained by a large number of short rivers.

The vegetable life of Cuba is abundant. Large forests of hard woods cover the mountainsides, and the lower slopes and plains produce the sugar-cane, the tobacco-plant, and such tropical fruits as pineapples, oranges, bananas, etc. There are few native animals, but imported domestic animals thrive well. In 1907 the population of the island numbered 2,048,980, of whom 1,440,013 were white and 608,967 were colored. The only towns of much importance are Havana, the capital; Matanzas, and Santiago de Cuba.

Jamaica, "the land of springs," lies to the south of Cuba, and is somewhat smaller than the State of Connecticut. Originally a colony of Spain, it was taken by the English in the time of Cromwell, and has been retained by England ever since. The population is composed chiefly of colored people, who number about five hundred thousand.

The island is mountainous in the center, and the higher slopes, having a cool climate, afford an excellent retreat during the dry season from the tropical heat of the coast. There are numerous streams in all parts, but few are of use for navigation.

The chief product of the island is sugar-cane, but owing to the competition with the beet-root sugar of Europe, the trade has declined. Coffee, spices, and tropical fruits are also produced in abundance. Animals are few, but the rivers contain fish and alligators. The chief city is the seaport of Kingston.

Haiti is larger than Jamaica, and is divided into two republics. The natives and negroes raised a successful rebellion against the French, who owned it, and set up a republican government, in which the whites have no part. Porto Rico is now in the possession of the United States, our country having acquired it by treaty at the close of the Spanish-American war.

Among the Lesser Antilles, the chief islands are St. Vincent, Barbadoes, Trinidad, and Martinique. The first three are British possessions, and are flourishing islands, chiefly engaged in the





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# HAVANA, CUBA.

UPPER: CABANAS, LA PUNTA, AND MOUTH OF HARBOR.  
 LOWER: CATHEDRAL, WHERE COLUMBUS WAS BURIED.

sugar trade. Trinidad is noted for its Lake of Pitch, from which large quantities of pitch, or asphalt, are taken and exported.

Martinique is the chief of the French West Indies. St. Pierre, the capital, was a city with an increasing trade, but it was destroyed in 1902, and thousands of lives were lost. At the same time much damage was done in other islands, especially in St. Vincent, where there was also great loss of life. We will now tell you briefly the story of these sad disasters.

### A PARADISE BLOTTED OUT

The French island of Martinique forms one of the group known as the Windward Isles, many of which owe their origin to volcanic action. On this account eruptions are frequent, and the islands are often disturbed and shaken by earthquakes.

Near the base of the volcano Mont Pelée lie the ruins of the once charming port of St. Pierre. This has been described as "the quaintest, queerest, and prettiest withal among West Indian cities—all stone-built and stone-flagged, with very narrow streets, wooden and zinc awnings, and peaked roofs of red tile." It was left a mere shapeless heap of ashes and mud. Before the eruption of May, 1902, Mont Pelée, one of several striking heights, looked down upon as fair a scene as could be imagined. Between these mountains lay rich, grassy valleys covered with the choicest vegetation, and with all the shrubs and delicate blooms of a beautiful garden. Up

the slopes stretched away dense woods of majestic trees—cedar, mahogany, oak, ironwood, and palm—the last-named overtopping the others in its effort to reach the sunlight and air. Climbing round all these were enormous creepers, throwing out their long feelers and forming one vast network of brilliant foliage.

But there came a terrible change. Mont Pelée suddenly began to shoot forth long, lurid flames of fire, and a huge crack was formed from which issued an awful stream of red molten mud. The air was filled with blinding, choking clouds of ashes, and down upon the luckless city of St. Pierre poured the destructive lava. Within a short time it was a mass of flames, while thirty thousand of its panic-stricken inhabitants perished within a short space of time. Most of the shipping in the harbor was reduced to ashes by the intense heat. A few vessels escaped, and stirring stories were told of heroic attempts to rescue fellow-creatures from death by fire or drowning.

A similar disaster, though in a smaller degree, had overtaken the island of St. Vincent—also one of the Windward Islands—a British possession. Here, too, the volcano, La Soufrière, had suddenly burst into eruption, pouring out streams of hissing lava, and hurling forth stones and dense columns of ashes. From a smiling paradise of fruit-laden gardens and plantations, this unfortunate island was converted into a vast ash-heap, while the scene was made the more desolate from its tale of over two thousand victims.





# GLIMPSES OF ASIATIC COUNTRIES

## THE PEOPLE OF INDIA

No other country in the world, perhaps, can show a greater variety than India in its inhabitants, both as to the number of races and tribes and also as to the degrees of civilization. The three hundred million people who dwell in India may be broadly divided into two classes, the Hindu and the Dravidian. The Hindus are the descendants of a superior and intelligent race which invaded India and drove the natives of that time into the central and southern parts.

Besides these, there are many hill-tribes, fierce and almost uncontrollable, scattered over the fifteen hundred mile stretch of the Himalayas; and in the northwest of India, the restless mountaineers are constantly giving trouble and causing troops to be sent against them. The Hindu branch is divided into innumerable sects, each speaking a different language or dialect. But it is this branch which represents the highest culture among the people of India, for, hundreds of years ago, the Hindus numbered among themselves many learned and wise scholars.

Naturally there are many faiths among such a diverse people. Brahmanism is the religion of the Hindus, and is chiefly remarkable for the social divisions known as castes. Of these castes, or classes, there were originally four, but they have, in course of time, developed into a very large number. The original four castes were the Brahmans or priests; the military or ruling class; the mercantile, comprising the farmers and tradesmen; and the laboring class. Below these were the outcasts, known as pariahs, who were held to be so degraded that even their shadow defiled the food of their superiors! The members of each caste are extremely careful that they shall not perform any office which is looked upon as belonging to another caste. You can understand, therefore, why so many servants are needed in a house, for one who will bring you your tea or coffee will not sweep the room, while the man who looks after your horse will refuse to cut grass for the animal.

After Brahmanism comes Mohammedanism,

which was introduced by the Arab invaders of the eleventh century, and now flourishes in the upper basins of the Indus and the Ganges. Buddhism is mainly practised in Ceylon, while the savage races of the hill-regions worship many objects of nature, such as plants, serpents, wild beasts, and rocks of curious shapes. And we must not forget the Parsees, descendants of ancient Persians, who settled in Western India centuries ago. They are called fire-worshipers, from the fact that they stand before a fire or face the sun when praying; but they themselves object to the term, as they merely regard the fire as an emblem of glory and spiritual life.

The language spoken by the Hindus is, like themselves, derived from the Aryans, the ancestors also of most European nations. The inhabitants of the Deccan, the Dravidians, speak a language something like that used by the Mongols of Central Asia.

## SOME HISTORIC CITIES OF INDIA

Delhi, near the Jumna, is one of the world's ancient historic cities, and was, for hundreds of years, the center of Moslem influence in India. It will always be remembered in connection with the Indian Mutiny, when, full of rebels against the British rulers, it was besieged by a small British force and finally taken. Though now mostly reduced to ruins, it retains much that binds it to the past, and it has a history that dates back to the days when the Israelites went out of Egypt.

The Delhi of to-day is less than three hundred years old, but all around it, covering an area of more than forty square miles, are the ruins of many ancient cities which once bore its name, with their palaces, tombs, and mosques all crumbling into dust. Of its twelve gates, one, the Kashmir Gate, remains to mark the famous exploit of the handful of British and native soldiers, who blew it up in the face of a murderous fire. Here you may see the great holes made by the cannon-balls, and also the spot where the brave

General Nicholson fell in leading his troops to victory. Of its many beautiful structures, the Jumna mosque is the most magnificent of its kind in India. The Kutab-Minar, one of the loftiest towers in the world, is supposed to be a perfect specimen of its kind. Delhi is, after Calcutta and Bombay, the chief cotton center of India.

Lower down the Jumna stands Agra, an important commercial city with an interesting history. Here stands the magnificent tomb known as the Taj Mahal, "the wonder of India." This remarkable and beautiful building was erected by Shan Jehan, an emperor of the seventeenth century, in memory of his dead wife, and twenty thousand workmen were employed over twenty years to build it.

"So perfectly is it planned, that in the early morning while dawn is breaking, it seems colored a light blue; rose-tinted beneath the rising sun; dazzling white at noontide; of a violet color before an impending storm; crimson at sunset, and pearly-white under the moonlight."

Cawnpore, the principal grain-market of the Northwest Provinces, recalls sad memories of the terrible mutiny. Here may be seen the well into which were cast the bodies of the women and children, the victims of Nana Sahib's cruel treachery. The inscription on the edge runs thus: "Sacred to the perpetual memory of a great company of Christian people, chiefly women and children, who near this spot were cruelly murdered by the followers of the rebel Nana, and cast, the dying with the dead, into the well below, on July 15th, 1857."

Lucknow, a city of palaces, and long the residence of the kings of Oudh, contains the ruins of the famous Residency, which, under the gallant defence of a handful of men and women, held out for months against a horde of rebels. Twice was it relieved by forces under Havelock, Outram, and Colin Campbell; and in one of its outer walls is the hole through which passed the shell that killed the noble Sir Henry Lawrence. Not a single room remains entire, for the mutineers, mad with revenge at finding the women and children safely withdrawn, completed the destructive work of the siege. Lucknow lies in the center of an exceedingly fertile district. In its numerous bazaars, the gaily dressed Hindu merchants ply their various trades, and the streets are often a packed mass of buyers and sellers. The silversmiths display their various wares—teapots, cups, bowls—and many skilful workers are employed in drawing gold and silver into fine threads for lace and embroidery.

Lahore, the capital of the Punjab, is a great railway center. Before the present fine cathedral was built, the services were held for many years in a gorgeous tomb which contained the remains of a native prince. Trichinopoli, a large city in the south, was the scene of many fierce struggles between the British and French in the seventeenth century; it is defended by a strong fortress, built on an elevated rock, on which also stands a massive pagoda.

## HINDU LIFE AND WORK

Besides caste, another interesting feature of Hindu social life is the village system. Each district of some hundreds, or even of thousands, of acres has, for ages, kept its own boundaries, preserved its own name, and been peopled by the same families. At the head of the villages are magistrates, who, with the priests and the schoolmasters, are the leading men; so, too, each village possesses its carpenter, smith, poet, musician, and dancing-girl, just as some American towns have their mayor, town clerk, and other officers.

Agriculture gives employment to many millions of the people of India. On each bank of the Ganges and other rivers may be seen carefully cultivated fields of rice, cotton, wheat, opium, and indigo. The last-named plant supplies a valuable dye, which requires very careful preparation. It is obtained from the young shoots which are picked at night, so as to avoid the effects of the sun. Then they are soaked in water, which is exposed to the sun for the purpose of evaporation. Finally, the bluish-black liquid is heated in vats, and when the water has been driven off in the form of steam, a deposit of pure indigo is found to remain.

The ryot is a small farmer, who cultivates his own land, in return for which he pays a land tax to the government. From him, the European learned the system known as the rotation of crops. Salt is another of the chief productions of India, and is greatly valued by the natives. What the ryot dreads mostly is drought, which often brings terrible famine behind it. But in recent years steps have been taken to store up supplies, and the extension of railways, canals, and irrigation works have greatly helped to lessen the distress arising out of the failure of the harvests.

The bazaars are always attractive to Europeans. A shop is often little more than a hole in the wall, with occasionally a few shelves; more often than not, the goods are piled up in con-





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AN ORIENTAL SENTINEL.

ENGRAVED FROM THE PAINTING BY G. CLAIRIN.



fused heaps on the floor. The merchants love to bargain, and usually ask a price which is three or four times the amount they intend to accept; the customer offers a good deal less than he means to give; and so, after much shouting and throwing about of arms and nodding of heads, a price is agreed upon. It is not to be wondered at, therefore, that an Indian bazaar presents scenes of great animation. The goods are paid for in rupees, annas, and pie; twelve pie make one anna, and sixteen annas are equal to a rupee, which, to-day, is worth not very much more than our quarter of a dollar.

The Hindus are remarkably skilful in the manufacture of artistic goods, and their fame was known to the ancient Romans, who decorated their houses with the tapestries and muslins made in India. So wonderfully fine is some of the inlaid work, that a powerful magnifying-glass is often necessary to reveal its beauties, while the carvings in wood and metal, with only the simplest of tools, are such as to cause the greatest admiration. A foreigner must not be surprised when he has bought one of these articles to find a native close at hand, claiming to have introduced him to the shopkeeper, from whom he demands backsheesh, or money, as his share of the profits.

The Hindus often invite their friends to a nautch-party, when their rooms are filled with bright ornaments and brilliant lights. To the sound of discordant noises from tom-toms, and instruments resembling a banjo, the nautch-girl dances, first quietly and slowly, then gradually increasing to great rapidity. Displays of conjuring and juggling are often given, and some of the tricks performed are of a most surprising character.

Snake-charming is another of the Hindu accomplishments, and the method of the charmers has been thus described: "The juggler takes in his hand a root, regarded popularly as having the power of preventing any ill effects from the cobra's bite. Drawing the reptile from the basket in which it is kept confined, he excites its passion by presenting a stick to it; immediately, the creature elevates the fore part of its body, swells out its neck, opens its jaws, puts forth its forked tongue; its eyes begin to blaze, and it makes a hissing sound. Then a struggle ensues between the serpent and its charmer; the latter, singing a low chant, opposes his closed fist—sometimes his right, sometimes his left—to the reptile, which, fixing its gaze on the threatening hand, follows its various movements, and balancing its head and body, simulates a dancing-measure."

## HILL-TRIBES OF THE HIMALAYAS

As befits their grand and noble surroundings, the natives of the slopes and spurs of the lofty Himalayas are not so easily awed and governed as the patient Hindus of the river-plains. They claim descent from the earliest dwellers of the country, and in their mountain strongholds, they are often a source of worry to the government. Brave and fierce, and dwelling in wild rugged regions, where it is often necessary to use sheep instead of horses as beasts of burden, they are frequently successful in resisting attempts to govern them.

Assam lies at the eastern extremity of the Himalayas, and receives the first downpour of the monsoon as it leaves the Bay of Bengal. Its rainfall is said to be the heaviest in the world, the rains lasting fully six months in each year. Most of the country consists of forest and jungle, but the open tracts are especially suitable for the culture of the tea-plant, and large quantities of tea are annually exported.

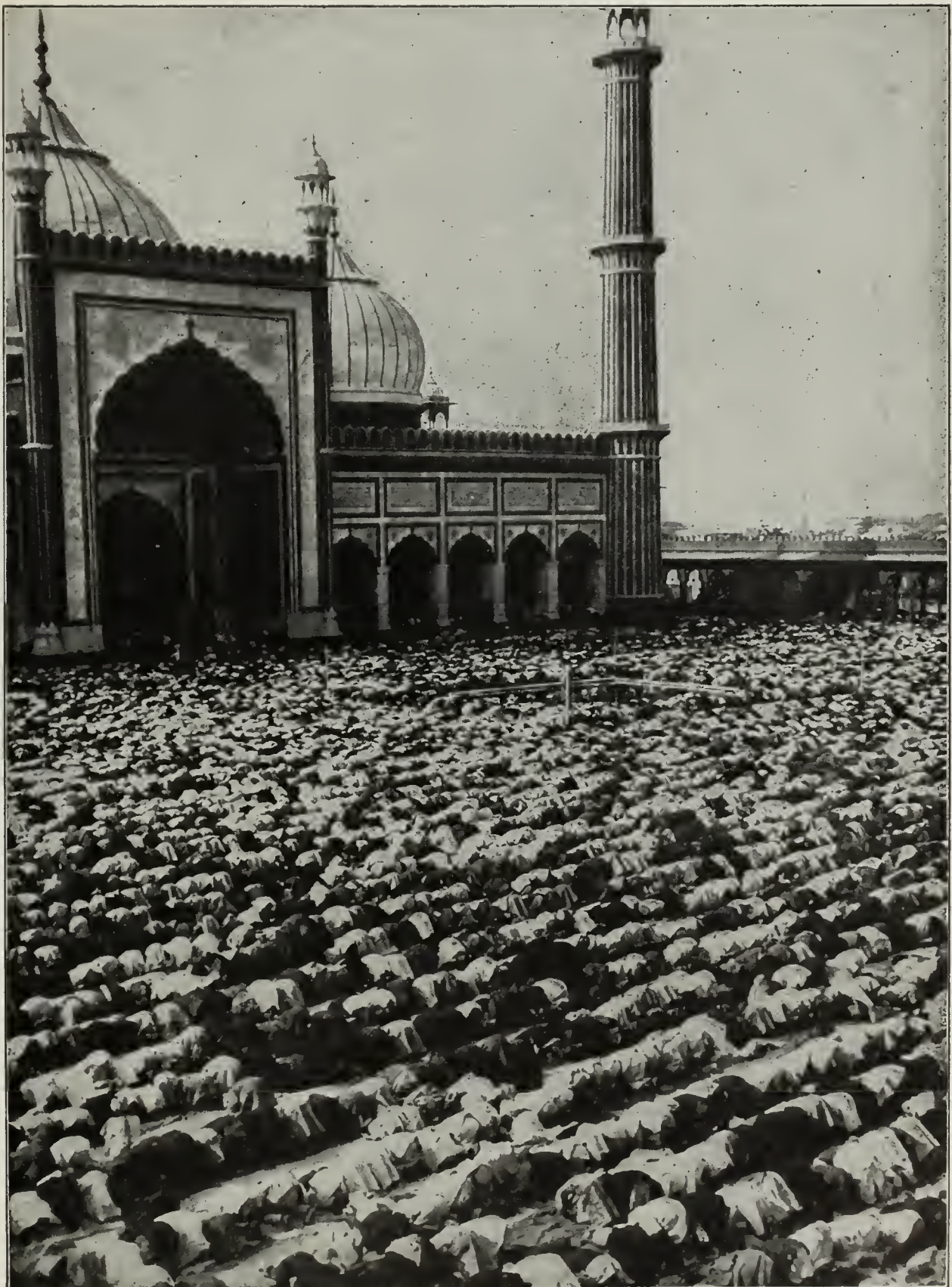
Kashmir (or Cashmere) lies to the north of the Punjab, and is the home of the famous Sikhs who were England's faithful allies in the terrible days of the mutiny. High up in the hills, with some of the loftiest peaks of the Himalayas lending their protection on either side, is the fertile Kashmir valley where, among the wonderful profusion of its various flowers, the rose is specially cultivated for the famous attar (or otto) of roses. Here, too, flourish the goats from whose silky hair the much-prized Kashmir shawls are woven.

To the westward we find a still more hilly area, "a lake or sea of mountains, where the peaks stand all round like the crests of a wave," only rarely covered with grass. Here the Chitralis dwell and, like their neighbors the Afghans, do as little work as they can. They get what food they want from their fields, and weave their clothes from the wool of their hardy mountain sheep. Brave and restless, they long defied the British power, but, like other hill-tribes, they now understand the good intentions of their conquerors, and make splendid soldiers under able leaders.

## THE STORY OF INDIA

India, like China, was a civilized country, ruled by wise and learned men, while yet the greater part of Europe was still inhabited by rough, half-savage tribes. But long before any European set foot on Hindu soil, that country had become the prey of different invaders, who found it an





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PUBLIC PRAYER—COURT OF THE JUMMA MUSJID MOSQUE AT DELHI, INDIA.



easy matter to overcome a people whose land was broken up into petty states, usually at war among themselves.

The discovery of the way to India, round the Cape of Good Hope, led many European adventurers to visit the rich country of which they had heard so much. Until the end of the sixteenth century, the Dutch had held the upper hand in trading with India, but at the beginning of the seventeenth century, a group of London merchants formed themselves into a trading association under the title of the East India Company. At first, the English were hotly opposed by both the Dutch and the Portuguese, but an important English victory over the Portuguese at Surat led the natives to regard the victors with great respect.

The position of the English company continued to grow stronger as years went by, but the time arrived when the fierce native race of Mahrattas rose against the ruling Mogul and restored the old Hindu power. Emboldened by their victories, they cast their eyes upon the rich factory at Surat, packed with valuable stores of merchandise and money. But the English traders, though men of peace, made such a successful defense that the Mahrattas withdrew their attack.

For a hundred years or more, the East India Company continued to flourish, and many new stations were established. Bombay, which came to Charles II. with his queen, was given to the company for a yearly payment of ten pounds. But troubles with the natives at last made it necessary to engage troops for defensive purposes, while it was found advisable to divide the area of trading operations into the three presidencies of Bombay, Madras, and Calcutta, under agents or chiefs of factories.

About fifty years later, in 1746, the French, who had long been settled in Pondicherry, began a struggle against the English which lasted for many years. They took Madras, where, at that time, Robert Clive was acting as a clerk in the employment of the company, but it was restored to the English a few years later. Then, for a long period, fierce war raged between the two countries in the southeastern part known as the Carnatic, each striving to win the native support and to gain the supremacy. Robert Clive had already shown his fitness to command troops, and now was entrusted with the important duty of breaking down the combined French and native power. Following up his victory at Arcot, where he proved himself to be an able general, he soon showed the natives of India that the French were not invincible. Then, for a short

time, peace ensued, only to be quickly broken by the bitter struggles of the Seven Years' War, which lasted from 1756 until 1763.

Meanwhile, Surajah Dowlah, the native governor of Bengal, came into collision with the English, whose small garrison at Calcutta he successfully attacked with a large force, thrusting his one hundred and forty-six prisoners into a dark dungeon, only eighteen feet square, where, after an awful night of agony and terrible struggle for air, only twenty-three emerged alive from the "Black Hole." But punishment was near at hand. Clive, who had returned from his visit to England, soon recovered possession of Calcutta, and at Plassy he inflicted so severe a defeat upon Surajah Dowlah that he firmly established British influence in India and laid the foundations of a mighty empire.

Lord Clive was succeeded by Warren Hastings, the first Governor-General of India. While Clive was the actual founder of the Indian Empire, Warren Hastings was the man whose great ability and knowledge of business affairs enabled him to put the government of India on a sound footing. Like Clive, he began his career as a writer, or clerk, in the East India Company's service; again, like Clive, he became a volunteer, fighting under that able officer against Surajah Dowlah. He soon received promotion and continued to display great ability.

When Hastings became Governor of Bengal, he found much dishonesty, even the native officials robbing their own countrymen. Dismissing these, he appointed European officers to collect the taxes, and stopped the wrongdoing of the company's servants. In 1773 he was appointed Governor-General, and he then devoted himself to destroying the influence of both the native rulers and their French allies. Meanwhile, he was looking after the interests of the ryots, and was taking all possible means to increase the revenue of the country under his rule. But, like most great men, he had made enemies for himself both in India and at home. Soon, rumors were flying about that he had been guilty of many cruel and unjust acts, and in the end he was impeached by the House of Commons. The trial lasted seven years, ending with his acquittal.

Whatever his faults may have been, Hastings earned the gratitude of this country by following up Clive's policy of stopping the servants of the company from trading on their own account and receiving presents from the native princes, and also by his great skill in putting the finances of the country upon a sound basis.

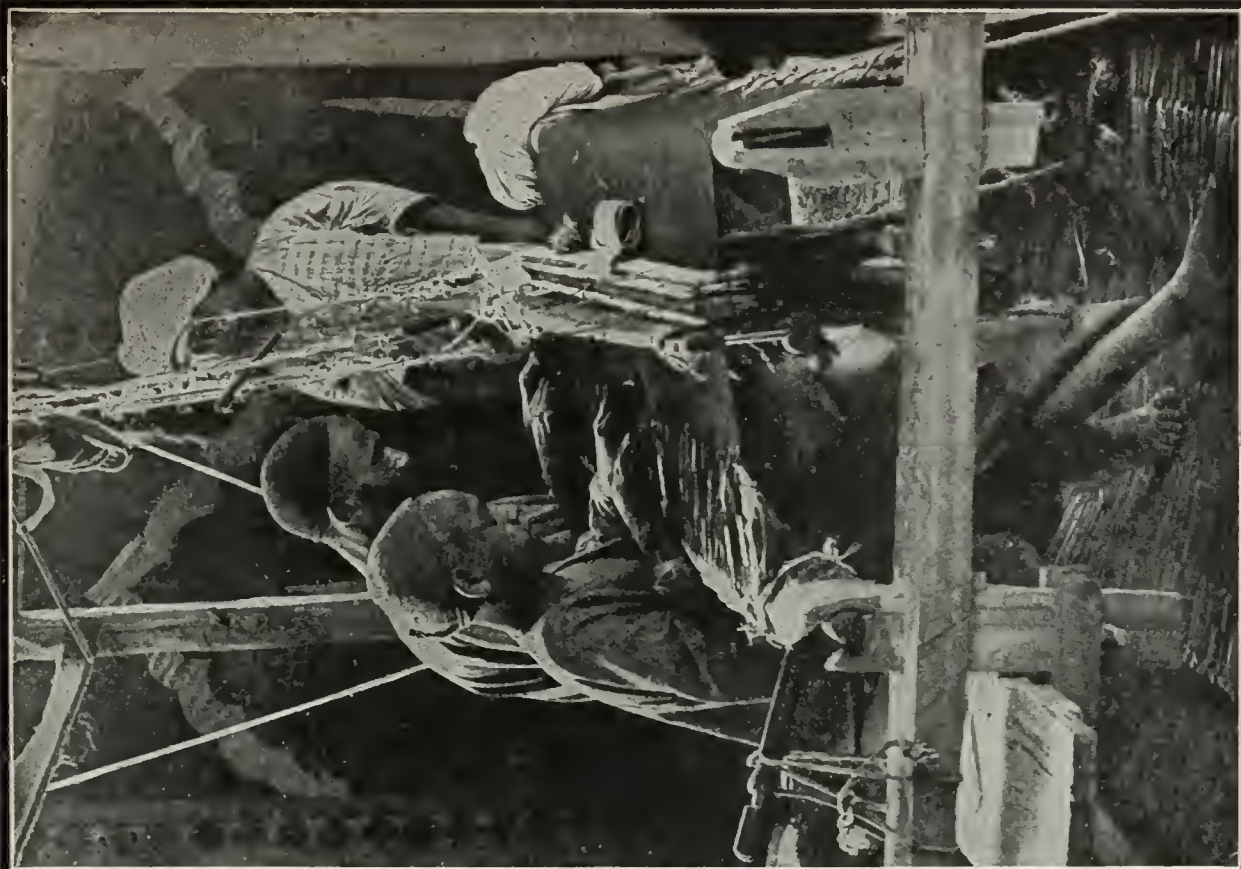
The East India Company had now extended its





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BULLOCK-DRIVER, AGRA.



GLIMPSES OF INDIA.

SHAWL-WEAVERS, KASHMIR.



sway over the greater part of the peninsula, but a terrible experience was in store for the English nation. Many things combined to weaken its influence in India, chief among which were a disaster to British soldiers in Afghanistan, the faith of the natives in a prophecy that within a hundred years from the battle of Plassy they should shake off the English yoke, and a belief among the Indian soldiers that the English were interfering with their religion. Some of the native troops rebelled and gained possession of several towns, in which they committed cruel deeds upon English women and children. British soldiers suffered great hardships, but led by the heroic generals Havelock, Nicholson, and Lawrence, they retook the towns, punished the mutineers, and again won India for England.

The mutiny proved the deathblow of the East India Company, for in 1858 India was brought under the direct rule of the British crown. In 1876, in London, Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India, and in the following year the proclamation was repeated at Delhi, India's old capital.

#### BURMA—THE LAND OF THE ELEPHANT

Burma lies east of the Brahmaputra River, and is the largest of all the provinces that go to form British India. Lower Burma, which mostly consists of coast-land, extends for about a thousand miles along the east of the Bay of Bengal; it came into British possession as the result of the Burmese wars of 1826 and 1852. Upper Burma, with the tributary Shan States, was once a very large and powerful empire, but gradually lost its power in its conflicts with Great Britain, and in 1886 its king, Theebaw, was deposed, and his country added to the Empire of India.

Burma is an extremely well-watered country. The two greatest rivers are the Irawadi and the Salwin, the valleys of which are very fertile, and produce enormous quantities of rice. Along their banks may also be seen fields of cotton, wheat, indigo, and tobacco. The Irawadi, or Elephant River, rises in some remote snow-capped peak in Tibet, and is to Burma what the Nile is to Egypt. The vast floods, which result from its overflow, are welcomed by the inhabitants, who, snug and secure in their little houses, built high and dry on strong piles, watch with satisfaction the waters that will leave behind a rich deposit of soil.

The presence of long parallel ranges of mountains between the river-valleys, makes the construction of good roads a matter of extreme diffi-

culty; but the natives are saved any such anxiety by the good services of the rivers, which carry their goods from place to place. The Irawadi is navigable as far as the town of Bhamo, seven hundred miles from the sea, where its banks are thronged with Chinese merchants. From Bhamo, the Irawadi flows on to Mandalay, the former capital of Upper Burma. It is built in the form of a square, with three stone walls and a stockade of teak-wood. The inhabitants have protected themselves against the flooding of the river by building a large embankment. As it nears the sea, the Irawadi breaks up into innumerable channels which form an extensive delta. On one of these stands Rangoon, the capital; ships line the banks, and take on board the valuable teak logs that have been floated down the river; also stores of rice, gums, and spices, and barrels of petroleum from the neighboring wells.

The Salwin, rising in the snowy heights of dreary Tibet, is nearly as long as the Irawadi, but is not so navigable. At its mouth is Maulmain, from which large quantities of teak are exported.

The forests of Burma are probably not equaled in value by any others in the world. The bamboo has a wonderful variety of usefulness, but it has to give way to the more important teak. The wood of this tree is easily worked, does not readily split, and is avoided by the destructive white ant on account of the aromatic oil it contains. It is quite as much in demand as the British oak for ship-building, and the construction of railway carriages.

The easy transport of the heavy logs of teak is due to the great intelligence of the elephants which are extensively used for this purpose. Each elephant will carry a log that would severely tax the strength and skill of thirty men, and they are so well trained that they will place each log in its proper position. When one elephant sees another engaged upon a log beyond his strength, he instantly lends his aid, and the two hoist the beam into its required position. These elephants are, of course, very valuable, but there are some which are treated as if they were royal creatures. These are the so-called white elephants, which are not really white, but have a yellow patch or two on their skins, or a few specks on their foreheads, or behind their ears. Worshiped as gods, these creatures are housed in palaces, with special officials of high degree to look after them, and grants of rich cotton estates are made to them. This custom is not only practiced in Burma, but also in Siam and other parts of Indo-China, and you may read in



the history of these countries how their inhabitants have fought for the possession of one of these animals at the cost of hundreds of lives.

The Burmese belong to the Mongolian or yellow race, from which the Chinese and Japanese spring, and their religion is Buddhism, one of the features of which is a deep respect for animal life. Indeed it is said that the natives will collect the fish that are left in the shallow pools after a flood, and carefully restore them to their native river.

All along the river-banks may be seen the curiously shaped temples called pagodas, which, gilded and painted, reflect the sunlight through the trees. The Buddhist priests live in monasteries, to which the Burmese boys are sent to be educated. The people themselves are a merry, intelligent set, but are inclined to be indolent. They rarely become successful in business, but generally prove to be good servants.

Besides its great wealth, derived from its rice-fields and splendid forests of teak and bamboo, Burma owns several tracts rich in precious stones. To the north of Mandalay are celebrated mines from which the finest of rubies have been taken, while gold is obtained from the sand of the rivers.

### THE "PEARL OF THE EASTERN SEAS"

Ceylon, though connected with the mainland of India by a chain of low coral reefs and rocky islets, known as Adam's Bridge, is quite independent of the government of that country. It is a crown colony, and is under the rule of a governor, who is assisted by a council of his own selection.

The island well deserves its name of "Pearl of the Eastern Seas," for nature has endowed it with a fertile soil that supplies many foreign tables with good things, and yields up mineral treasures both for use and ornament. From the cinnamon gardens come "soft-blowing spicy breezes," and the endless groves of cocoanut palms provide both food and drink, and materials for houses, and articles of everyday use. Coffee is now in a great measure replaced by the tea-plant, and from the cinchona-tree is derived the useful medicine known as quinine.

If any proof were wanted as to the abundance of precious stones and metals hidden away in the soil, we have only to glance at the dusky women and children in their brightly colored garments. Children barely able to toddle, old men and women, all wear ornaments of gold and silver, and on many parts of the body, either as

earrings, or ringlets dangling from the nose, circlets round the hair, rings on the fingers, or silver plates on the toes. Gems of all sorts, from the ruby to the cat's-eye, seem to abound, for no sooner does a steamer reach the harbor of Colombo, than it is swarmed with natives anxious to dispose of precious stones of more or less value. Ceylon, too, is the home of beautiful pearls.

Point de Galle was formerly the chief port of call for the great steamers that plow the Eastern seas, but its importance has decreased through the rapid growth of the island's capital, Colombo. A magnificent breakwater that took ten years to complete has made the harbor of Colombo perfectly safe and accessible for all ships, and the city now extends for four miles along the coast, and two miles inland.

As you enter the harbor, you may see a large number of strange craft darting about. These are known as catamarans. The trunk of a tree is hollowed out, and covered with short poles and canvas. The ends, which are about twenty feet apart, are sharpened to a point, and, in order to preserve the balance, a couple of arched poles, ten or twelve feet long, with a heavy spar attached, reach out over the water, so that the spar floats. If the weather be rough, two or three men, or even more, crawl out on the spar and sit there, taking no notice whatever of the angry waves. The catamaran is usually propelled by men who ply their paddles in a kneeling posture; sometimes, however, a bamboo mat or cotton sail is hoisted on a bamboo mast. Strange as it may appear, this frail craft can be safely navigated in a sea which would swamp the best-built ordinary boats.

The streets of Colombo present a striking scene at all times. Besides the Cingalese, there are other natives called Tamils, who mostly dwell in the north. These, like the Cingalese, act as servants and laborers to the Parsees and Moormen, who are the merchants and shopkeepers of the island. Each race has its own style of clothing, and mixing everywhere with them are to be seen Buddhist priests in yellow robes, so draped as to expose the right shoulder. Curious vehicles wend their way through the streets, from the four-wheeled carriage, with its needful awning, to the light wagons, covered with dried palm-leaves, and drawn by zebus (or bullocks), singly or in pairs.

From Colombo you may reach the famous Adam's Peak by coach. This mountain is not the highest in Ceylon, but it is famous for a dent on its summit, shaped like a man's foot, only five

or six times larger. The Mohammedans call it the footprint of Adam, though the native Buddhists ascribe it to Buddha. From this and neighboring heights you may see great reservoirs, or tanks of water, often ten miles long, built into the hills, and from them the water is conveyed in a canal over fifty miles in length when the dry seasons require it.

A traveler has described Ceylon as an island of villages. Kandy, the old capital, consists of a group of two or three villages, nestling among some verdant hills in the interior. It can be reached by a railway which winds its way along the sides of the mountains, and the timid traveler might well shudder as he looks down the steep overhanging rocks if these were not covered with delightful clumps of evergreen trees and bushes, interlaced with brightly flowering creepers of all kinds. There are numerous Buddhist pagodas, and one of these contains the "sacred tooth of Buddha," which is held in great reverence by the natives, and carried every year in a grand procession. It is, however, an inch or two in length, and probably belonged to some fierce animal of prey.

Until recent years Ceylon was famous for its pearl-fisheries and coffee plantations, but these two industries are now dying out. Though many of the pearl-fishers will not find it easy to get a new occupation, people hitherto engaged in the planting of coffee already find their services in great request by the tea-planters, who have found that the climate and soil of Ceylon are admirably suited to the growth of the tea-shrub.

### THE FRENCH IN ASIA

Of the large peninsula known as Indo-China, the central portion consists of the independent country of Siam. To the east and southeast lies French territory; to the west and southwest are Burma and the Straits Settlements; while, on the north, Siam is shut in by Burma and Annam. Hence, Siam is, in a way, "sandwiched" between Great Britain and France, and these two nations have agreed to maintain its independence.

The French own Cochin-China and Tongking, and exercise a control over Annam and Cambodia. The inhabitants belong mostly to the Mongol family, and are very devout Buddhists, to judge from the large numbers of temples and pagodas scattered about the country. As this large tract lies between two oceans, and is entirely within the tropics, the climate is very hot and moist. Europeans find it very trying, and suffer much from fevers. Cochin-China and

Cambodia lie in the delta of the Mekong River, the fertile soil of which, under the influence of the tropical climate, produces immense crops of rice, which grain is the chief article of export from Saigon. As in Burma and Siam, teak is another important production, being brought down from the mountain forests of the interior, many of which have not yet been explored.

The rice-fields are always under water. Terrace rises above terrace very gradually, the water being turned from the mountain streams above in small channels. Early in June you may see groups of men and women standing knee-deep in the muddy water, transplanting the young shoots in rows. These soon spring up into straight, bright-green stalks, the blossom appearing in September. The harvest takes place in October, when the stalks are stripped by drawing the heads through an iron comb. Sometimes a flail of very ancient pattern is used. The grains are then laid out on mats to dry in the sun.

Annam and Tongking are more hilly than the southern portion of Indo-China, and though rice is extensively produced, the climate is also suitable on the lower slopes for the growth of tea and coffee. Hué has been strongly fortified by the French, while Hanoi, on the Song-ka, or Red River, though a hundred miles from the sea, is a very busy port.

Cambodia was once a very powerful empire, and included the greater part of Indo-China. It now demands attention on account of the magnificent ruins of Angkor. Similar ruins are found in other parts of this country and also in Siam. Lord Curzon describes them as "the most remarkable collection of ruins in the world," whether from the point of view of the area they occupy, or of the impressive dimensions of the principal palaces and temples, or of the beautiful and artistic sculptures of flowers and images, which are among the finest and most delicate in existence.

### THE DUTCH IN ASIA

The continents of Asia and Australia are connected by a group of volcanic islands known as the East Indies, or Malaysia. This large archipelago is divided into two portions, one showing the same plants and animals as Asia, the other, those of the Australian type. There can be no doubt that each of these sections was once a part of the neighboring mainland.

The greater part of the area of this archipelago belongs to Holland, the chief islands being Sumatra, Java, the Moluccas, or Spice Islands,





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PROCESSION AT THE TEMPLE OF BUDDHA'S TOOTH,  
KANDY, CEYLON.



CARVINGS IN THE HINDU TEMPLE AT  
MADURA, INDIA.



Celebes, and the major portion of Borneo. The Philippines came into the possession of the United States in 1898, after the war with Spain. Great Britain owns the island of Labuan, lying off the coast of Borneo, while the northwest part of that island, which includes the States of Bruni and Sarawak, is under British protection.

The East Indies lie on and about the equator, and, as may be expected, the hot, moist climate helps a fertile soil to produce a most luxuriant vegetation. In fact, this region is said to be the most productive in the world, and its value to the Dutch is further increased by its mineral wealth. Java is the most fertile of the group, yielding camphor, tobacco, and tin, though the last-named is collected in still greater quantities from some small islands near Sumatra.

Java was the scene in 1883 of one of the most terrible explosions ever recorded. In the May of that year, Java, Sumatra, and Borneo, always subject to volcanic eruptions, were disturbed to a far greater degree than usual by earthquakes. A volcano had broken out on Krakatoa Island, lying in Sunda Strait, between Sumatra and Java.

The eruption continued until August, when suddenly the sea opened and swallowed up the city of Anjer, with its sixty thousand inhabitants. Other towns were similarly destroyed, both directly by the explosion and by the tremendous ocean-wave, which swamped the coasts of the archipelago, and then raced through the oceans until it exhausted itself. For months afterward, magnificent sunsets could be seen, even in our own country, and, for a time, the cause of these was a mystery until it was explained by the presence of particles of fine dust in the atmosphere, which had spread nearly all over the world as the result of the explosion.

Sumatra possesses enormous specimens of animal and vegetable life. Here may be found the elephant, tapir, and orang-utan; while it yields a flower named *Rafflesia* after its discoverer, Sir Stamford Raffles, that has buds as big as cabbages, and is itself a yard wide, and sometimes weighs over twenty pounds.

Borneo is the second largest island in the world, but, unlike its neighbors, it has no volcanoes. Among its many valuable productions, may be reckoned gold and diamonds. It is covered with splendid forests of teak and gutta-percha, while the Chinese import trepang, a sort of sea-slug, and edible birds'-nests—two delicacies much appreciated by them. The interior is inhabited by a wild tribe called Dyaks.

The island of Celebes is more remarkable for

its peculiar shape than anything else, though a good breed of horses is reared there. Macassar-oil owes its name to its capital, Macassar. The Spice Islands produce all sorts of spices. A fruit resembling the apricot has a kernel which we call the nutmeg, its covering being known as mace. Pepper is the powder of the peppercorn, which grows in clusters on the pepper-vine, a creeper that climbs up trees or poles like the ivy or hop.

The Philippines resemble a very big island broken to pieces, a few being large and the rest very small ones. Luzon and Mindanao are the two chief members of the group. Manila, on the former, is the capital, and is noted for its cigars. In Mindanao, water-buffaloes are used, during the rainy season, to tow the ferry-boats across the rivers, and they are equally useful on land.

The Philippines are well watered with streams and lakes, and the islands present an attractive picture, with their villages half hidden by groves of palms, and smiling gardens of gay blossoms and fruits of various tints. As they are wholly within the tropics, the islands have, of course, a very warm climate. In the more temperate months, November to February, the thermometer ranges from 75 to 80 degrees above zero. In April, May, and June, the hottest months, the average temperature is about 82 degrees.

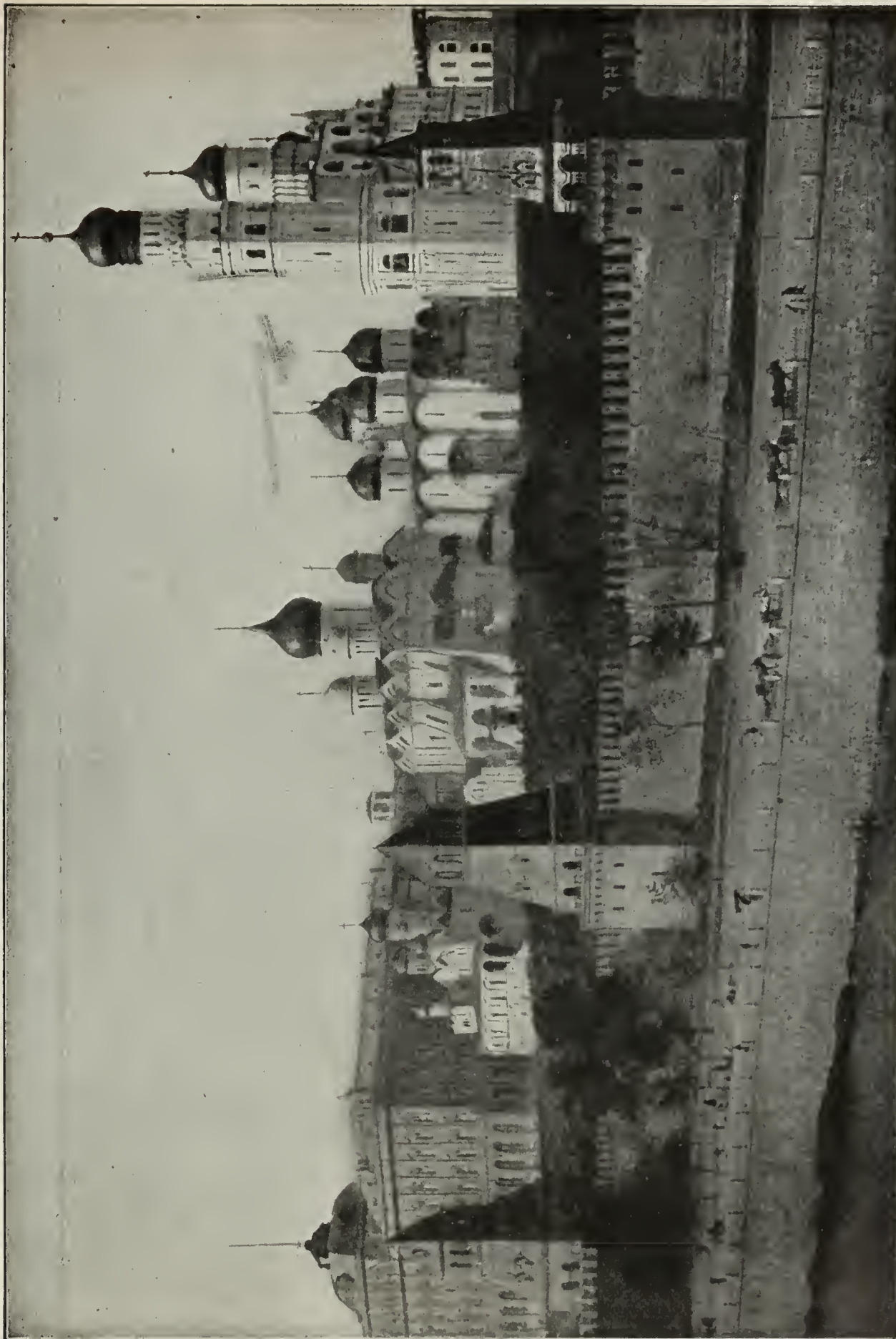
The islands are rich in vegetable life, including as many as five thousand species of tropical plants. Here are produced valuable hard woods, bamboo, cocoanut-palm, the banyan-tree, and numerous other species. From the Philippines various countries get cinnamon, cloves, pepper, nuts, rice, sugar, tobacco, hemp, cocoa, and sweet potatoes. The minerals of the islands are said to be great in extent and value, but they have not yet been largely developed.

With more than three thousand islands and islets, the Philippines have an area of nearly 128,000 square miles. The population, as shown by the census taken in 1917, numbered 8,925,812, including at least thirty different races or tribes—blacks, browns, yellows, whites, and a few reds! Political organization and education under direction of the United States government have already done much to improve the condition and prospects of the inhabitants.

#### A LAND OF HIDDEN WEALTH

Russia owns more than one third of Asia. Siberia is much larger than the whole of Europe; Russian Turkestan lies between the Pamirs—a high region in Central Asia—and the Caspian





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THE KREMLIN AT MOSCOW.

Sea; and Caucasia occupies both slopes and the adjoining plains of the Caucasus Mountains, while Kamchatka, a large peninsula at the eastern extremity, is traversed in its entire length by a range of high volcanoes.

The name Siberia means "thirsty," and it always suggests a vast dreary expanse, peopled only by Russian prisoners. But in its great extent we find variety in its soil and climate, for while the eastern portion is elevated and intensely cold, the southwestern district is very fertile, and produces immense crops of wheat. Its great rivers are only of service in their upper courses. These rivers flow northward into the Arctic Ocean, which is frozen for the greater part of the year. The upper courses are the first to thaw, spreading themselves over the fields of ice that mark the lower portions, where navigation is almost out of the question; but the higher portions, with their tributaries, are made good use of for trade purposes. The Amur, too, which separates Siberia from Manchuria, is a very serviceable waterway.

Strange as it may seem, the northeast of Siberia experiences great extremes of both heat and cold. The cold is so intense that mercury freezes, and axes have no power against the frozen trees; yet the summer, of only a few weeks, brings heat which is so fierce as to make the ground almost unbearable to the feet.

In spite of these drawbacks, the country is rich in useful products. Ivory tusks of the extinct mammoth are found in large numbers; the wooded country south of the tundras, or treeless plains, harbors a large variety of fur-bearing animals; the rivers and lakes abound with fish, salmon being a common article of food; and the ground is stored with rich deposits of gold, silver and copper, which, however, cannot be obtained in very large quantities owing to the severity of the climate.

#### FROM PETROGRAD TO PEKING BY TRAIN

If you were to go from England or France to Shanghai in China, by sea, it would probably take you about five weeks; but now it is possible to travel between Petrograd and Peking in one of the Trans-Siberian trains in a little over a fortnight. By this route, therefore, your journey would be very much shortened. This great railway system has a total length of over four thousand miles. Few incidents of travel could be more interesting than that of the crossing of Lake Baikal, pending the completion of the line south, the trains being taken bodily on board a

steamer with its powerful ice-breaking apparatus plowing its way across the lake.

The traveler who joins the train at Petrograd is carried through Russia, past Moscow, and on to the Asiatic side of the Urals. Soon he reaches Omsk, whence he can go down the river Irtysh to Tobolsk, the former capital of Asiatic Russia. The next town of importance is Tomsk, which is reached by a short branch line, and which is the seat of a University. Irkutsk is the capital of Eastern Siberia, and lies near the southwestern shore of Lake Baikal. Beyond this lake the line is continued until it reaches the Amur, over which it passes into Chinese territory. It then crosses Manchuria, reenters Siberia, and reaches the terminus of Vladivostok. It also branches off to the southeast, and reaches Port Arthur and Talien-wan by way of Mukden; from Port Arthur a connection is established with Peking by way of Niuchwang Junction. The total length of bridges in its course amounts to rather more than thirty miles, and over one hundred thousand acres of forest were cut down to provide wood for sleepers and buildings.

#### STEPPE AND OASES

Russian Central Asia has an immense area, but it is very barren, and its population only averages five persons to the square mile. These dry, bleak districts are known as steppes, upon which scarcely a tree or a shrub is visible, the whole region presenting the aspect of a boundless sea. Over one, the great Kirghiz steppe, roam families of shepherds, who rear large numbers of horses, sheep, and goats. The country is drained by the Syr and Amu (or Oxus), which both flow into the Sea of Aral. They carry a large quantity of mud and sand into the lake, and as the evaporation is greater than the supply of water, it is gradually becoming shallower, and filled with sandy islets.

The inhabitants, who prefer a settled life, dwell in the towns and villages, on the fertile oases that are dotted over the face of this barren waste. Tashkend, the capital, is in the center of a delightful district, covered with thick clustering masses of mulberry-trees. From the silkworms which feed on these, and from the cattle of the surrounding steppes, the famous Tashkend silk and leather are obtained.

Merv was once a fine old city with a noted slave-market. It now consists of groups of small, prosperous settlements spread over the oasis, which absorbs the waters of the Afghan river Murghab. Samarkand is another "garden in the



wilderness," and contains a splendid mosque; but time is slowly proving that eventually this and the other oases will become barren, through the gradual drying up of the lakes and rivers. Khiva is the capital of a state which Russia acquired in 1873, though it still keeps its old ruler, or khan. The state is remarkably fertile, the whole soil being thickly covered with trees and bushes of all kinds, and beds of beautiful flowers. Bokhara is another important trading center, which is independent only in name.

The Russians are pushing forward their railways here. From Batum, on the Black Sea, the line extends across Caucasia to Baku, and passes Tiflis, the capital. Steamers connect Baku with the opposite shore of the Caspian, whence commences the line that reaches, on the one hand, to the Afghan border near Herat, and on the other, passes through Merv, Bokhara, and Kokand, until it gets near Kashgar, the capital of Chinese Turkestan. With a line from Tashkend joined to the Trans-Siberian railway, Russia's great advantage in having two separate railways to Merv—of immense service in case of war with Afghanistan or Great Britain—is easily seen.

Caucasia is the name given to the land lying between the Caspian and Black seas, the Caucasus Mountains serving as a barrier between Europe and Asia. Mount Elburz, once an active volcano, is the highest point, though not so interesting as Mount Ararat, whose lofty twin peaks overlook the three empires of Russia, Turkey, and Persia. Heavy crops of wheat and rice are grown. Grapes, oranges, and mulberries are cultivated, while apples and pears claim to be native fruits. The people consist of several races, all noted for their courage and personal beauty.

Tiflis is the capital, and is connected by rail with the Caspian and Black seas. Baku is the center of the petroleum industry, from which we get paraffin, benzine, and paraffin-wax for the manufacture of candles. At night are seen scores of tall shafts of flame springing upward like fountains of light, as the gas that escapes through the crevices in the earth is collected in iron pipes and lighted. Hence the place is always brilliantly illuminated, and the flames are used for cooking purposes, and also for heating the great furnaces in which the oil is refined. The naphtha is collected in barrels and brought to the refineries.

### THE LAND OF THE SHAH

The western half of the plateau of Iran, which stretches from the borders of India to the moun-

tains of Armenia, is known as Persia, the land of the Shah. This empire, once the leader of the world's nations, has been in a state of decay for hundreds of years, and its people now chiefly follow the simple pursuits of agriculture and weaving. The whole country consists of high table-land, which on the north is flanked by the Elburz Mountains, while on the south it descends in a series of terraces to the Persian Gulf. Much of the surface is useless desert of sand or salt, but some tracts produce splendid crops of wheat and fruit and an abundance of flowers, notably the rose.

The greatest of Persia's drawbacks is want of water. There are intensely cold winters in the highlands, little rain falls, and intolerable heat exists in summer. Yet much could be done for the inhabitants in the way of constructing tanks or reservoirs in which to store the waters of the melting snows, and many of the now barren plains could be made to yield food for a greater population than they now support.

Besides the Great Salt Desert of Khorassan in the northeast, the southeastern portion is an unbroken tract of sand. Here the surface is so much under the influence of the winds, that roads and caravan tracks are completely wiped out by the drifting sand. In many parts of the plateau a peculiar system of irrigating the soil is adopted known as the "karez." It often happens that while the eye sees nothing but miles of dry, sandy plain, water may be had by digging a hole of about twenty feet in depth. Such rivers as the country possesses do not reach the sea.

Teheran, the capital, has numerous palaces, handsome gardens, and busy bazaars. The visitor is at first struck with the mean and dirty appearance of the streets, and only changes his opinion when he sees the pretty courtyards and flowerbeds at the backs of the houses. The bazaars provide anything and everything, each little shop being stocked with articles likely to be required. In one may be seen shelves laden with spices; in the next, swords and daggers of the best tempered steel; while others are gay with bright displays of gems or beautiful silks. But the most prized articles of Persian manufacture are the carpets and shawls, and it is very interesting to watch the carpets being made. These are mostly woven by young boys who sit at the looms, drawing the wool from reels suspended above them, and, with movements of lightning rapidity, giving the necessary twists and knots. No machinery is used, and the lasting character of the colors is said to be due to the use of natural dyes.

Teheran is one of the principal stations of the

Indo-European Telegraph. Thence it is carried on to Ispahan, the old capital, at one time one of the most wonderful cities in the world, with its hundreds of mosques, colleges, and public baths. The Palace of Forty Pillars contains really only twenty pillars, the other twenty being reflected from the sheet of water adjoining. From Ispahan, the line proceeds to Shiraz, famous for its attar (or otto) of roses, and reaches the port of Bushire, whence the messages pass over the cable to **Karachi**.

### LANDS OF SONG AND STORY

Southwestern Asia consists of Asia Minor and the peninsula of Arabia, and includes the Levant, the lands of Homeric tradition, the fabled Eden, birthplace of the human race, the Holy Land, and the sacred places of the Mohammedan world. Here, too, are the scenes of the travels of Paul, the places of the Crusades and the lands of the Israel of the Old Testament. Here are the martyred cities and villages of long-suffering

Armenia. Among the modern cities are Smyrna, Scutari, Angora, and Jaffa; among the ancient ones are Troy, Ephesus, Sardis, Bagdad, Damascus, Mecca, and Jerusalem. Here, too, are islands that have their place in song and story: Cyprus, Rhodes, Patmos, Cios, and Malta.

Asia Minor is a great plateau containing numerous forests and salt-water lakes. A great part of the interior is desert, its sandy surface being covered with a coating of salt, which, swept up into pillars by the winds, glide and dance about like so many figures, and scorch the faces of travelers. But much of the land is very fertile, and under better government commerce and agriculture will develop and flourish. The plains of the Tigris and Euphrates, once the seat of Assyria and Media, mighty kingdoms, are in the pathway of destiny and have history before as well as behind them. Palestine is a narrow tableland, surrounded by deserts, mountains and the sea. It has been the bridge between Europe and Asia in history and the scene of a noble history and the home of the Stainless Life.







THE CALL TO PRAYER.  
FROM THE PAINTING BY J. L. GÉRÔME.



# HOW OUR COUNTRY IS GOVERNED.

EVERY nation has a government of some kind. Some have kings and some have presidents. The use of a government is to keep things in order so that people do not harm one another and every one gets a fair chance to live and be happy. Because men are not all as good as they should be, there must be laws to control society. If there are laws there must also be some way of making people obey them, and this is what a government does.

Some governments have not been good, for we know from reading history that there have been very bad kings who have broken laws instead of obeying them. But that is only because these kings have been bad men.

In a country that is ruled by a king, the king's son becomes king after him; or, if he has no son, his brother, or next nearest relative succeeds him.

In this country we have no king, but the people choose a President once every four years, and the man who receives the most votes of the Presidential electors, as explained a little farther on, becomes President. At the same time and in the same manner the people elect a Vice-President.

The people of the United States, then, really choose their own rulers, and they also make their own laws. Our government is what is known as a republic. This is a Latin word meaning "public thing or affair." The name shows that the government is something in which the public, which means all the people, have a hand.

A republic is, therefore, a "government of the people, by the people, for the people," as our great and good President, Abraham Lincoln, once said. But the United States is not merely a republic like the ancient ones of Greece and Rome, where the people of some small city governed themselves. It is what is known as a federal republic. The word "federal" means joined, united, working or going together, and it is used here because the government of all the United States controls the whole country, which is made up of forty-eight States, each of which has its

own government. And all the States work together to make the nation.

Each State of the United States is self-governing, and has its government separate from that of every other State, and in most things from that of the nation. We may understand this if we think of a house in which many persons live—a large family, for example. Each person has his own clothes, books, and other belongings, but they all live together, and, if they do right by each other, every one does something to keep the house going. If they are all grown up, each one pays board, but if they are parents and children, each little boy or girl does something to help his or her father and mother, even if none of them do more than to be good and mind as they are told to do. In this way all the different persons in a family may live together happily while each one has his own property and business separate from the others.

Just as the chief man in the nation is called the President, so the chief man in each of the States is called the governor, and the chief man in a city is called the mayor. All the voters of all the States may vote to elect the President of the United States, and all the voters of each separate State or each separate city may vote to elect their governor or their mayor.

The President has no right to interfere with the governor of any State unless he does something against the whole United States, as, for example, trying to make his State free from the Union. The President and the United States government have control of only a few things within the States, such as the mails, the railroads running from one State to another, and United States lands in any State. These United States lands are largely great forests which the government keeps from being cut down, so as to save the trees and their wood from being wasted.

Then, also, the United States government has customs officers in different States, especially in those along the ocean, on the Great Lakes, or on the border between the United States and Canada or Mexico. These customs officers col-





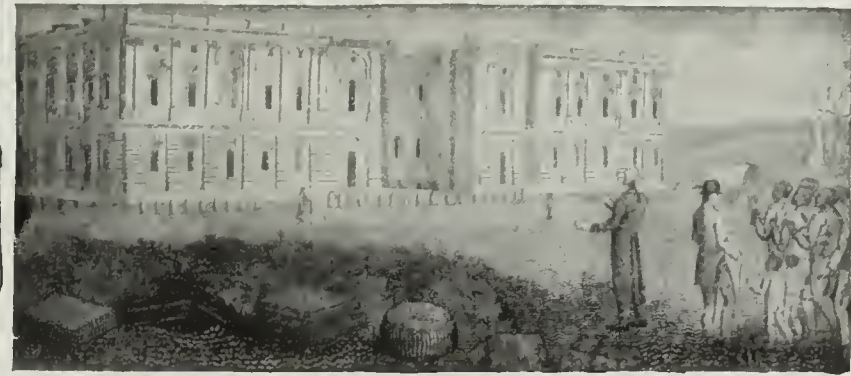
CARPENTERS HALL  
THE PLACE OF FIRST CONGRESS



VIEW  
OF THE  
CITY HALL  
WALL  
ST.  
1789



CAPITOL OF THE  
UNITED STATES  
AFTER THE CONFLAGRATION  
IN  
1814



THE  
CAPITOL  
AT  
WASHINGTON  
D.C.

CAPITOL BUILDINGS OF THE UNITED STATES.

lect duty, or money, demanded by the government as a tax upon certain articles imported or brought into the United States from other countries. The President of the United States can also call on any or all of the State governors to send soldiers to fight the nation's enemies in time of war. But the President cannot interfere with the laws of any of the States.

The President and Vice-President of the United States are chosen, as we have said, by the voters of all the States. But the voters in the various States do not vote directly for them. They vote for men known as Presidential electors, as we have also told you. Each party in each State chooses a number of men who will be Presidential electors if their party is successful in that State.

The Constitution provides that each State shall choose as many Presidential electors as it has persons representing it in Congress—two electors to correspond to the two senators from each State, and as many more as the State sends members to the House of Representatives. All together these electors compose what is called the electoral college. "Each party in each State chooses its candidates for this body; each district being represented by its own successful candidate, according to the popular vote. The successful electoral candidates in each State meet at their respective State capitals, on the first Monday in January following the general election, and vote for the candidates heading the party tickets with which each member is affiliated. The electoral votes are formally counted, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, on the second Wednesday in February, and the President and Vice-President declared elected. In case of non-election, the matter is placed in the hands of Congress, which chooses candidates by two-thirds vote."

The Vice-President is president of the Senate while the President of the United States lives and retains his office, but succeeds him if he dies in office, or if he resigns. In the early days of the Republic, the unsuccessful candidate for President was usually elected Vice-President, but later each party chose its candidate for this office, as well as for that of President.

Now that we have seen how the President is elected to rule the country, we must learn how he must act, in order to rule it rightly. So we must learn how the government is formed.

The government of the United States is divided into three parts, or departments. These are: first, the legislative, which means the law-making, department; second, the executive, or

managing, department; third, the judiciary, or judging, department. The first, or lawmaking, department consists of the two houses, as they are called, of Congress; the Senate and the House of Representatives. The second, or managing, department consists of the President and his nine advisers, who form his cabinet. The third, or judging, department consists of the justices of the Supreme Court of the United States, and of the United States district courts in all the States of the Union. The United States courts are separate from the State courts, just as the national and State governments are distinct. They never interfere with one another, since each has its own separate authority.

To show what these three departments must do, we may say that Congress makes laws; the President and his cabinet carry them out, or enforce them; and the judges of the United States courts use them in deciding cases brought about by legal disputes.

Congress, as we have seen, consists of the Senate and the House of Representatives. The Senate consists of members elected by the legislatures, or lawmaking bodies of the States. Each State sends two senators, and each senator is elected for a term of six years.

The House of Representatives consists of members elected by the people of the several States. Each member of the House is elected from a congressional district, which is now formed, as nearly as possible, to include 154,325 inhabitants. The congressional districts are reapportioned, or changed to suit the varying population, three years after every census, or counting of the people, of the nation.

Laws made for the nation consist originally of bills, which are passed by the votes of most of the members of Congress. A bill may be drawn up in either house, and when it has been passed in that house it is sent to the other to be voted on. If it is passed by both houses, it is sent to the President. If the President signs his name to the bill it becomes a law. If he does not approve it—that is, if he withholds his signature—he returns the bill, with his objections, to the house that first passed it. This act is the President's veto. "Veto" is a Latin word meaning "I forbid," and the bill that a President vetoes fails to become a law unless, after the veto, two thirds of both houses vote to pass it again. This seldom happens, however, since in recent years the President's veto has been generally respected.

Bills are presented to either house by committees chosen to deal with special subjects. When a new law is proposed in the form of a





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### THE POWER OF THE LAW.

FROM THE MURAL DECORATION BY E. H. BLASHFIELD IN THE APPELLATE COURTS BUILDING, NEW YORK.



bill, it is referred to the appropriate committee, who, if they approve it, submit it to their house, which then votes upon it. The President often suggests laws that he thinks should be passed, and his suggestions may be taken up by Congress, which draws up and passes such a bill as it thinks best.

The government of the nation under the direction of the President is divided into nine executive departments, each of which has its chief or head. These are known as secretaries. Together they form the cabinet or body of the President's personal and official advisers. The nine secretaries forming the President's cabinet, and their functions, are as follows:

The Secretary of State, chief of the Department of State, controls all our relations with foreign countries, and is the director of all United States ministers and ambassadors who represent this country at foreign capitals. He also directs all United States consuls in cities of foreign countries, who are sent out to protect American citizens in these places, and to promote the interests of American commerce there.

The Secretary of the Treasury, chief of the Treasury Department, has charge of all money in the United States Treasury. He also directs the collection of taxes on tobacco, liquors, playing-cards, and other things subject to the internal revenue tax, and controls all the United States custom-houses, which collect tariff duty on things brought into the United States from foreign countries. The mints where money is coined are also under him.

The Secretary of War, chief of the War Department, is, under the President, the director of the United States Army. He has entire charge of all the forts belonging to the government, and directs all officers and soldiers of the army. The War Department has charge also of the Weather Bureau, which issues daily predictions on the weather.

The Secretary of the Navy, chief of the Navy Department, directs all the officers and sailors of the United States Navy, and also of the United States Marine Corps. He has in charge the building of ships for the navy, and directs their sailing at all times.

The Secretary of the Interior, chief of the Department of the Interior, has charge of all the United States business in all the States and territories, and also of the United States lands and forest reserves, and of the irrigation dams and systems in the arid regions of the West. His department has to do with most of the relations between the States and the United States government.

The Attorney-General, head of the Department of Justice, is really the chief lawyer for the government. He directs the conduct of all suits in the United States courts for the government, and looks out for the government's legal interests in all parts of the country.

The Postmaster-General, chief of the Post Office Department, directs the carrying of the mails all over the country, as well as the mails entering and leaving the United States.

The Secretary of Agriculture, chief of the Department of Agriculture, has charge of the work of advising and helping the farmers of the country to make the most of the soil and crops. His department tries new ideas, and issues bulletins which tell farmers about the various kinds of crops that can be raised in this country.

The Secretary of Commerce and Labor, chief of the Department of Commerce and Labor, has charge of matters relating to the workers of the nation and their relations with their employers. His department was founded largely to deal with the difficulties known as "strikes," and other forms of labor trouble.

Each one of these secretaries is appointed by the President after his election, and may take office if the Senate approves the appointment. Each secretary is the executive head of his own department, where he represents the President. He is supposed to do always as the President desires.

In case of the President's death in office, the Vice-President, as we have said, succeeds him. If the Vice-President also dies, the Secretary of State becomes President. After him in the order of succession come the Secretary of the Treasury, the Secretary of War, the Attorney-General, the Postmaster-General, the Secretary of the Navy, and the Secretary of the Interior.

There is another branch of the government of which we have already spoken—the judiciary, or judging, department, consisting of the Supreme Court of the United States and all the other United States courts throughout the country. The judges hear and decide disputes subject to their lawful authority between individuals, companies, cities, or States, and settle them by showing how the United States laws apply to them. It is sometimes said that while Congress makes laws, the judiciary department unmakes them. So far as this is true, it is so because the judges have often said that a law is contrary to the Constitution of the United States, which tells what kind of laws may be made and what kinds may not be made. If Congress makes laws that are against the Constitution, then the judges set them aside.





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SUPREME COURT OF THE UNITED STATES.

(LEFT TO RIGHT) HOLMES, VAN DEVANTER, HARLAN, LURTON, WHITE (C.-J.), HUGHES, MCKENNA, LAMAR, DAY.

# GLIMPSES OF EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

## A TRIP TO THE "LAND OF THE MID-NIGHT SUN"

LET us suppose that we are at some place in Europe from which we are to begin a journey to various countries on the Continent. It may be that we cannot do better than set out from the seaport city of Stavanger, on the southwestern coast of Norway. Let us then imagine ourselves already there.

From this starting-point we turn north, and are soon among the lovely scenery of Norway. The cliffs rise from the sea, and are constantly broken by narrow passages, sometimes only a stone's throw in width, which form the entrances to those fiords which are the delight of travelers.

How can we describe the delightful character of this charming land? We notice the sudden rising of the cliffs from the deep blue waters, the shelving away above the snow line where the glaciers rise, the heavy native boats with their huge sails, and the fisherman's log hut, which all add to the strangeness and beauty of the scene. The largest and best known of the fiords is Sogne Fiord, north of Bergen, which is one hundred miles long, and throws off long inlets like the branches of a tree. These curl their windings among the highest mountains, producing the grandest effects.

One of the most beautiful and best known is the Hardanger Fiord—usually reached by the "Narrow Fiord," where the mountains rise abruptly from the water. The Hardanger runs eighty miles inland, and from one of its inlets an immense glacier stretches almost down to the surface of the water. Near by is also one of the grandest waterfalls in Europe.

At Drondheim we find a fine cathedral, and a great fish-curing industry. Here the sun at midsummer only sinks below the horizon for four hours, but in midwinter the night is twenty hours long. This long night, however, is not dark even when the moon does not light it up. The gorgeous aurora borealis (northern lights) is here seen in full splendor. We sail on past the Lof-

den Isles, where is the Maelstrom, a whirlpool much more famous than dangerous. These islands supply enormous quantities of codfish and cod-liver oil.

Farther north is the most northerly town in the world—Hammerfest—where we may buy shoes and bone spoons from the Lapps, and where in summer the sun never sets for seven weeks, and in winter never rises for nearly as long a time. Hammerfest is not far from North Cape, the most northerly point of Europe.

## LIFE AMONG THE NORSEMEN

The inhabitants of this northern land are the curious little Lapps. They could not possibly exist here if it were not for the reindeer. This wonderful animal provides them with clothing of fur from its skin, leather for shoes and harness, fresh meat, milk, and means of locomotion. The Lapp makes thread of its sinews and domestic utensils of its horns. Well may the Laplander reckon his wealth by the number of reindeer he possesses.

Returning south to Stavanger, we join a steamer bound for the Baltic, and soon reach Christiania, the capital of Norway and a timber port. Turning south and following the low coast of Sweden, we enter the Kattegat opposite the Skaw, the most northerly point of Denmark. Exactly on our left is Gottenburg, whose river brings down the waters of the great Lake Wener. The Kattegat is blocked at its southern end by a large number of islands, of which Zealand is the largest. The most used of the channels between these islands is the Sound, which washes Sweden on the east and Denmark on its western shores. We enter the Sound at Elsinore and soon cast anchor at Copenhagen, the capital of the little kingdom of Denmark. Copenhagen is a fine sight from the sea: a noble harbor lies in front, and a mass of handsome buildings, with lofty spires and towers, behind; while in the background rises a range of hills clothed with trees.





AMONG THE PEASANTRY OF THE SCANDINAVIAN PENINSULA.

1. BEFORE A FARM-HOUSE, DELARNE, SWEDEN. 2. A PEASANT OF THELEMARKEN DISTRICT, NORWAY.  
 3. IN A FARM-YARD, LERDAL, SWEDEN.  
 4. A GIRL OF HARDANGER, NORWAY. 5. PEASANT WOMEN, HARDANGER.



We now enter the Baltic Sea, and clinging to the Swedish shore, drop anchor at Stockholm, the capital of Sweden. This city is sometimes called the "Venice of the North." It is prettily situated on a number of islands, and looks as if it floated on the water. The scenery around is rich, with agreeable variety of hill and dale.

Our voyage ends here, and we return overland to Bergen to take passage for a southern voyage. We must carefully remember the chief natural features of this great northern peninsula. The mountain range that runs from north to south is nearer the Atlantic than the Baltic, so that the larger rivers are on the eastern slope. The summits of the mountains in Norway are always covered with snow, from which great masses of ice creep down into the valleys, sometimes reaching even to the seashore. Here they are often broken, and in the end, falling into the sea, they form an iceberg, which goes floating away toward the warmer parts of the ocean, until it melts and disappears.

On the lower slopes of the mountains are tall, dense forests of pines and firs. Rich ores of iron also abound. The coasts are thronged with wild ducks, wild geese, and other waterfowl, and the sea is filled with excellent fish. Many of the Norwegians work in the forests, cutting down the tall, straight trees, which they send to other lands to be used for masts of vessels. Great numbers work in the mines, or catch fish along the coasts. In summer the cattle and sheep are driven away to the mountain pastures, where they are taken care of by the children and old people.

In Sweden there is much to remind one of Germany; the languages resemble each other, but Swedish is softer and more agreeable to the ear than German. Norse is not at all difficult for an English-speaking person to learn, and many of the words are almost the same as ours. The Danes are a tall, strong, fair-haired race. They have become a nation of hard-working farmers, and send large quantities of butter to foreign markets.

### A CRUISE ROUND SPAIN

We soon find ourselves scudding down channel, and pass in view of the Channel Islands, which belong to England, and provide her markets with early potatoes, and her visitors with a delightful summer holiday. We are next tossing about on the stormy Bay of Biscay, but having rounded Cape Finisterre, we reach places where nature is more kind. Cape Rocca, the most westerly point in Europe, is next left behind,

and we cast anchor in front of Lisbon, the capital of Portugal on the estuary of the Tagus.

Portugal, like Spain, is famed for its warm, fruitful valleys, and the fine wines of its vineyards. The climate of Portugal, however, owing to the breezes from the Atlantic, is milder in all seasons than that of Spain. The only important cities in this country, which is about as large as the State of Maine, are Lisbon and Oporto.

The port of Lisbon, one of the finest in Europe, has a reach of two miles, sheltered from every wind that blows, and is easy of access for any number of ships. The city stands upon seven hills, and its newer streets, built since the earthquake of 1755, are well laid out. The old streets were narrow and winding, and projected to such an extent that people in the upper rooms could really shake hands with their neighbors in the houses on the other side.

Oporto, at the mouth of the Douro, is the cleanest and most agreeable city of Portugal. The famous red wine, called port, which is produced on the banks of the Douro, is shipped from this city.

From Lisbon we sail to Gibraltar, the rock fortress guarding the entrance to the Mediterranean, and held by the British since 1704. On the way we pass Cape Trafalgar, and call to mind Nelson's great victory and his death. From Gibraltar we resolve to see something of the southern and most attractive parts of Spain. Most of this country is a high, dreary table-land, with few cultivated fields, marked from east to west by several ranges of mountains, of which the Sierra Nevada (Snowy Range), in the south, is the highest. Through the deep valleys, between these ranges, flow rivers, and here are beautiful orchards, vineyards, and gardens.

### A RICH, SUNNY, DREAMY LAND

Many of the mountains are covered with forests, which contain some valuable trees. Among them is the cork-oak, the bark of which is so useful in many ways. In the rich valleys at the foot of the Sierra Nevada are orange, olive, and mulberry groves; as well as gardens of pine-apples, bananas, and beautiful flowers. No frost ever withers them, and no winter's cold robs them of their leaves, their flowers, or their fruits.

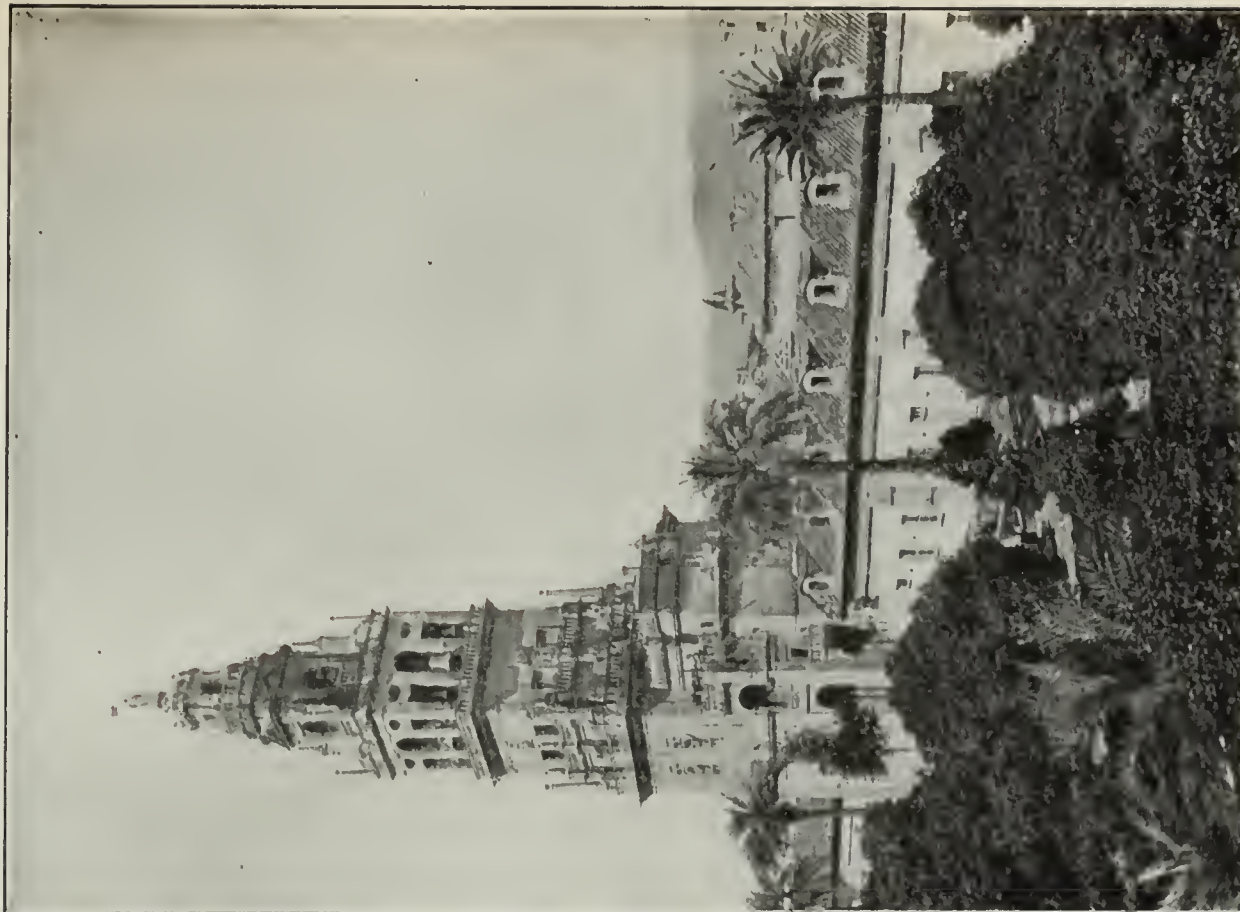
The olive yields a small, dark-green, plum-shaped fruit, which is either preserved and exported, or pressed for its oil. The leaves of the mulberry furnish food for silkworms, whose silk





From stereographs, copyright 1902 by Underwood & Underwood.

BELFRY AND GATE OF PARDON, CATHEDRAL.



CORDOVA, SPAIN.

MOORISH PORTION OF THE OLD CATHEDRAL.

is exported to Lyons, where it is manufactured.

Spain is a beautiful and interesting country. Think of the brilliant sunshine and deep shadows, the tiled roofs of the houses, the idle muleteers, and the mules with panniers laden with ripe fruits and nuts—all giving the impression of a rich, sunny, dreamy land, where the soil brings forth abundance without great effort, and the people lead an easy life of careless enjoyment, more fond of gay laughter and bright music than of work. These are the impressions we receive as we pass from Seville, famous for its oranges and wine; and through Granada, the old capital of the Moors.

It is long ages ago now since the Moors came over from Morocco, and settled down to luxury and idleness in this dreamy land. The Moors are all gone now, but we still see proofs of their conquest, remains of their rich palaces, stately columns, round arches, and quaint coloring.

#### SPAIN AND ITS STORY

Of few lands can more wonderful stories be told than of Spain. At one time it was one of the richest and most flourishing provinces of the Roman Empire. Then it was conquered and reconquered by tribes that passed over the Pyrenees from the north, who in their turn were subdued by Moors from Africa. For eight centuries the Moors ruled with a gentle hand, making Cordova the center of the highest art and learning in Europe. While our Saxon ancestors were living in huts, the Moors reared palaces and homes of luxury in the south of Spain.

Their arms held back their enemies in the north, and confined them to the bleaker and more unproductive parts of the peninsula. Their skill in healing was recognized all over Europe. Their buildings are still, even in ruins, admired by the traveler; and their patient industry made fruitful gardens of a land which to-day is little better in many parts than a dusty waste. But gradually the northerners became more and more united among themselves, and therefore more and more able to attack their enemies in the south with success. Gradually the Moorish kingdom grew smaller. After the capture of Cordova, Granada became the capital, and this last city which remained under Moorish rule was captured by Ferdinand and Isabella in 1492. These monarchs now ruled the whole peninsula south of the Pyrenees. They expelled or persecuted their new subjects so cruelly that their industry and skill were completely driven out of Spain.

At the very time that Granada was about to surrender, Christopher Columbus waited upon the King and Queen to seek help for his proposed voyage to discover a new world. It is not surprising that the monarchs at first refused to help the strange dreamer. He left them almost in despair. But a messenger from the court overtook him and bade him return. He was provided with three small vessels, and sailed in August, 1492.

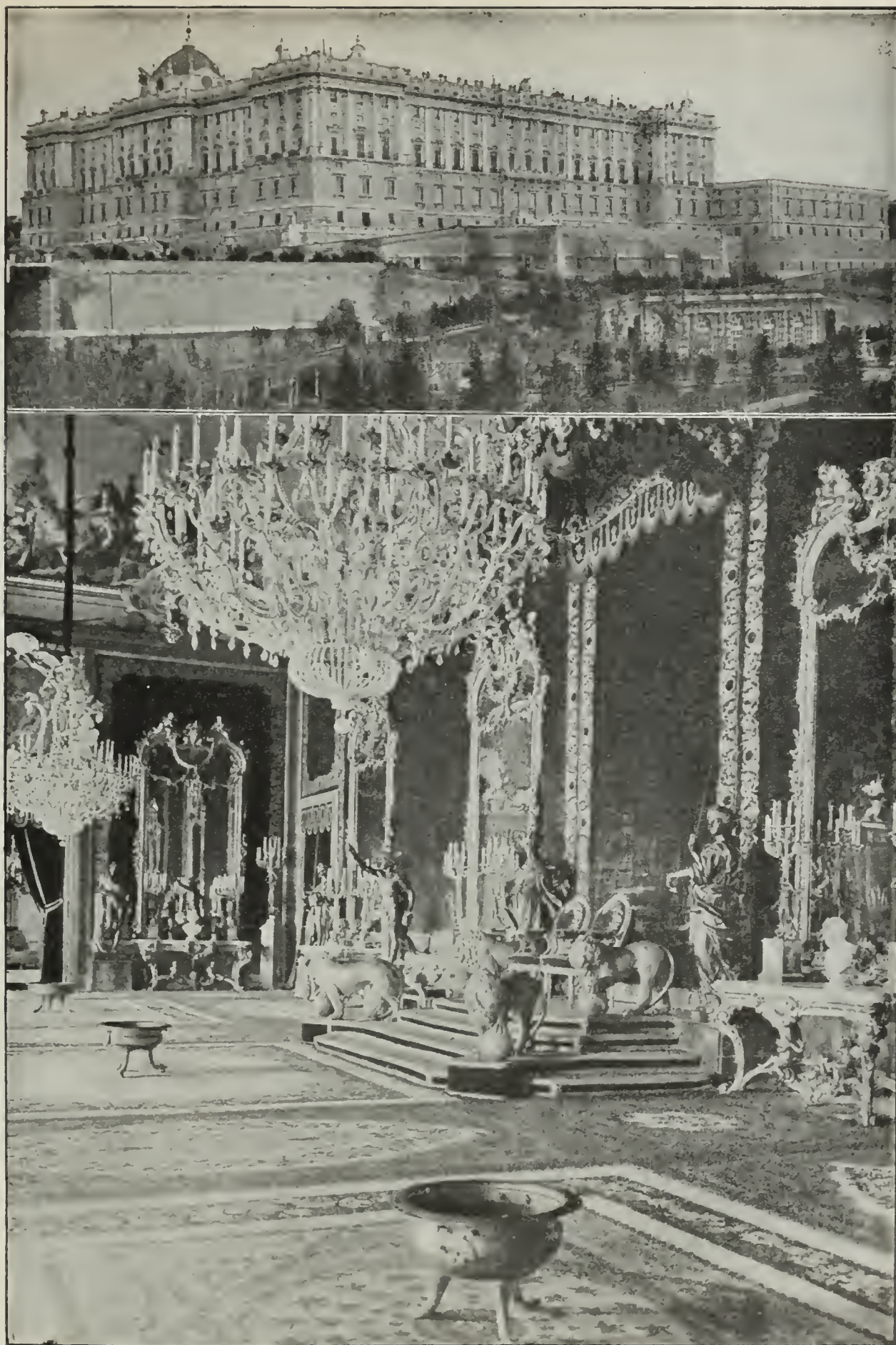
Even in that age of adventure, when Vasco da Gama had already hugged his way round the coast of Africa until he turned the Cape, in "Good Hope" now of reaching India by this new way, the voyage of Columbus was looked upon as a mad action by many who still believed the world was flat. The ignorant sailors who accompanied him were terrified when they found the winds steadily blowing them westward, wondering how they were to return home. Day after day, week after week, they went sulkily on, until at last the mutiny was so general that Columbus was compelled to agree to turn his ships homeward if land were not discovered within a very short time.

A large reward was promised to him who should first see land. The signs of its approach increased; land-birds perched in the rigging, objects floating in the sea showed its nearness, and all kept a keen lookout. Columbus himself was the first to see a moving light in the darkness of night. The New World had been reached, and the great navigator took possession of it in the name of Spain.

Fresh adventurers now set forth to discover and to conquer new lands. Foremost among these were Cortés and Pizarro. Cortés led a few hundred men against the highly civilized state of Mexico. He burned his ships as soon as they reached the strange land, so that his men might have no hope except in conquering the country. The Spaniards knew the land was rich in the precious metals. Their gunpowder terrified the natives, armed only with bows and arrows; while the warriors on horseback were regarded with wonder and surprise. In a short time Cortés and his companions had conquered Mexico and added it to the Spanish dominions.

Pizarro was the conqueror of Peru. There had been stories of a land where the very stones in the streets were of gold. Pizarro found a strong and well-governed empire, but easily overran it with his European arms against bows and arrows, and took possession of fabulous wealth. The news of his success soon brought new adventurers from over the sea. The Inca King





From stereographs, copyright 1902 by Underwood & Underwood.

# THE ROYAL PALACE OF SPAIN AT MADRID.

UPPER: EXTERIOR.

LOWER: THE THRONE ROOM.



offered as his ransom to fill a large room with gold ornaments as far as he could reach up the wall. The faithless Spaniard received the gold, but refused to release his captive.

In these times the Spaniards at home possessed writers and painters whom the world will always remember. Cervantes wrote his wonderful and amusing book called "Don Quixote," and Lope de Vega astonished men by the ease with which he wrote a multitude of books. Velasquez was a great Spanish painter in the time of Philip II., who sent the "Invincible Armada" against England.

Although for generations the Spanish galleons were constantly coming home from the rich mines of Mexico and Peru laden with silver and gold, Spain steadily declined. The industrious and skilful Moors had been driven out by the Inquisition, and the same cruel instrument of persecution prevented all freedom of thought and action except upon the narrow lines which it allowed.

As the land which once possessed the richest and fairest parts of the New World became weaker and weaker, she lost gradually one colony after another, until she had nothing left of her former wide dominions, but Cuba and Porto Rico in the West, and the Philippines in the East. A war with the United States, at the very end of the nineteenth century, resulted in the loss of these, and to-day Spain, once the proud ruler of almost half the known world, the mightiest country on the face of the globe, is among the lesser powers in the council of the nations.

#### A TRIP ALONG THE SUNNY SHORES OF THE MEDITERRANEAN

From Barcelona we sail direct across the Gulf of Lions—so called from its stormy waters—to Marseilles, the third city in France, and the largest port in the Mediterranean. Near by is the great French naval port of Toulon, and along the coast eastward, at the foot of the Maritime Alps and stretching over the Italian boundary, is the lovely Riviera, whose balmy air, unclouded sky, and deep-blue sea attract crowds of wealthy visitors from other lands, especially persons who are anxious to escape from the cold of winter and spring in their own countries.

The Gulf of Genoa is named after the city of Genoa, which long years ago was one of the chief ports of Europe. It is beautifully situated on the hill-slope overlooking the sea, and still retains many of its fine old buildings. Between Genoa and Naples we pass Elba, the island where

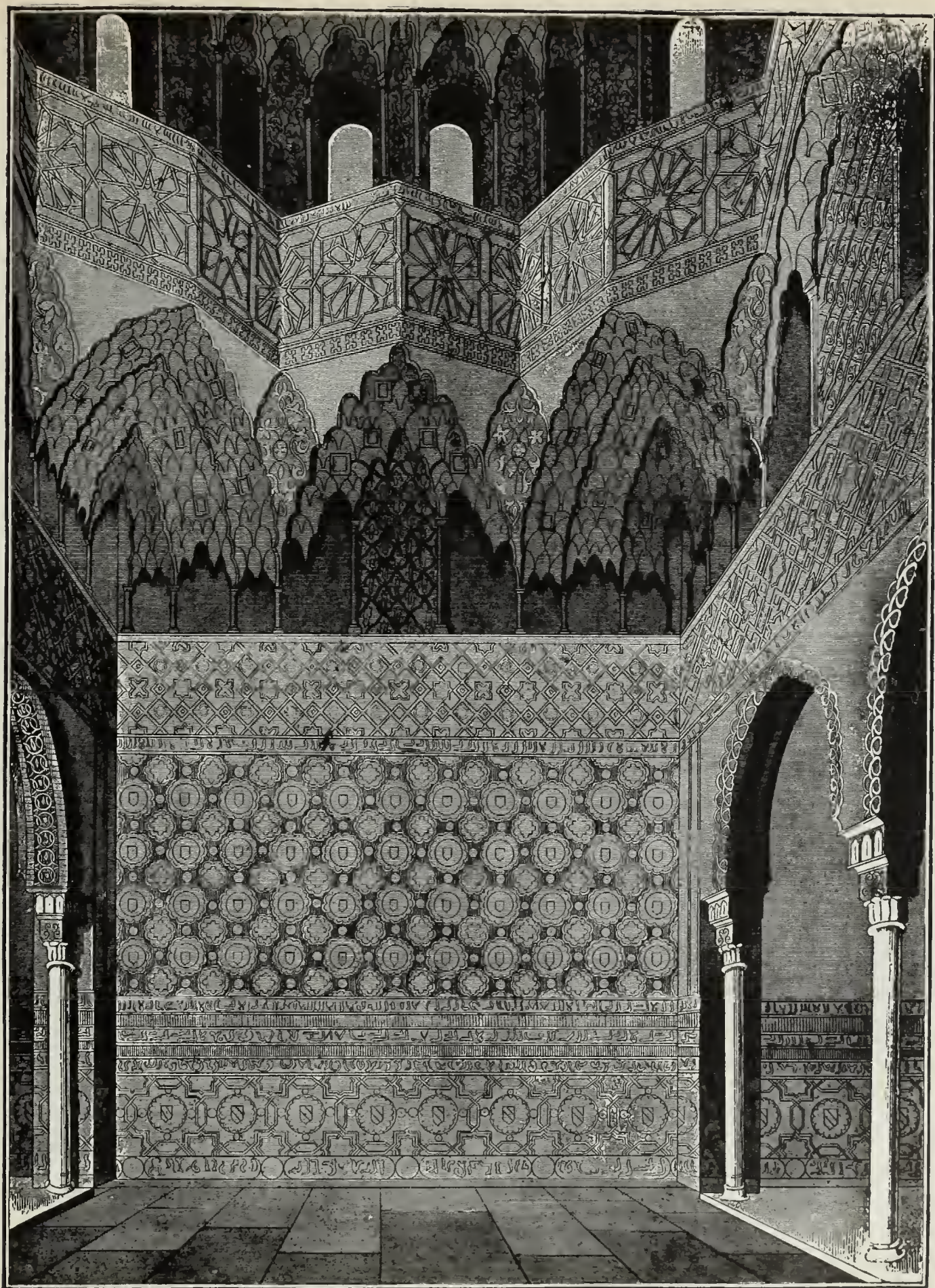
Napoleon spent his first period of banishment. As we approach Naples from the sea, we realize the meaning of the proverb, "See Naples and die." It is built on the seashore, with the broad blue bay in front, hills and fresh green valleys all around it, both valleys and hills covered with vineyards and orange-groves. A short distance behind it is the active volcano of Vesuvius, from which black clouds of vapor are always rising. Its lower slopes are cultivated like the surrounding country, although the people know that at any time the volcano may send out a stream of lava to burn, or a shower of cinders to bury them all, as it buried Pompeii in the year 70 A.D.

Leaving this interesting district, we steam along the western shores of Italy, and through the Strait of Messina, to Brindisi, the nearest Italian port to the east. The Adriatic Sea stretches far away to the north, but the voyager is well repaid for his trouble, when he reaches Venice, one of the most interesting cities in Europe. Like Stockholm and Amsterdam, it is built on piles on numerous low, sandy islets which stud the surface of a salt lagoon; and although it contains about one hundred and fifty thousand people it does not possess a single horse, nearly all the traffic being carried on by means of gondolas, or barges. The city is crossed by the Grand Canal, which is the chief avenue of traffic, and the only open space of any size is the Piazza of St. Mark. The cathedral of St. Mark and the Doge's Palace face the Piazza. The Rialto, mentioned by Shakespeare, stands near the fish-market, and is the chief bridge of Venice.

We here take passage in a steamer bound for Constantinople. As we sail southward, our voyage lies along the coasts of a huge peninsula, called the Balkan Peninsula, after the range of mountains that runs across it. This peninsula, which formerly belonged entirely to Turkey, is now divided into a number of independent and partly independent states. Rumania, Bulgaria, and Servia are on the banks of the Danube. The Turkish province lies entirely to the south of the Balkans. Greece is at the southern end.

Having rounded Cape Matapan, we enter the port of Athens, the capital of Greece, a city which, thousands of years ago, was the home of art and poetry. The monuments and buildings of Athens are still models for our sculptors and architects. The climate is delicious and the soil productive. From Athens we sail through the midst of numberless isles, and through the Dardanelles to Constantinople, on the Bosphorus,





THE ALHAMBRA—A SECTION OF THE PALACE.



which joins the Sea of Marmora to the Black Sea, and separates Europe from Asia.

### THE HOLY LAND

If you sail to the east of the Mediterranean you come to one of the smallest but most interesting countries of the world. Palestine is only about the size of the State of New Hampshire, but it was the ancient home of one of the world's most remarkable races, and it has been the scene of some of the most sacred events of history.

The city of Jerusalem is connected to-day by rail both with Damascus and with Egypt and it is only two hours motor ride from Joppa to Jerusalem. Still this country, which we think of as the home of patriarchs and camels, preserves many of its ancient customs.

Not more than one-eighth of the population of Palestine to-day is Jewish and in Jerusalem there are probably not more than 25,000 Jews. Since the re-conquest of the Holy Land by the English during the Great War, there are the most sanguine hopes among Jews scattered all over the world that they may return in great numbers to their ancient home to establish again, after having been homeless for eighteen centuries, a Jewish state.

The Jews to-day are influential everywhere. Their intellectual and moral strength commends respect. They excel in literature, art, and music, but finance is their special domain. Clanish within their own race, they are hospitable, dignified, and generous.

### THE ISLANDS OF THE MEDITERRANEAN

There is little to tempt us to extend our voyage over the Black Sea. The Crimea, a peninsula lying between it and the Sea of Azov, is memorable in history as the scene of the Crimean War, waged in 1853-56. Odessa, a great grain port, is the principal port on the Black Sea.

Returning now from Constantinople to Gibraltar, we make it our business to learn what we can about the principal islands on our way. The first to call for notice is Candia, or Crete, a large island south of Greece, which has recently risen against Turkish rule, and obtained self-government under a Greek prince. Midway between Sicily and Africa lies Malta, which has been a British possession since 1800, and which is one of England's most important naval and military stations. It is very thickly populated, and the soil, which has actually been carried over the sea from Sicily, is fertile and well cultivated.

Valetta, the capital, is one of the strongest fortresses in the world.

From Malta we sail to Messina, and land upon the shores of Sicily—the largest, most important, and most fruitful island of the Mediterranean. It produces plentifully, and with little effort on the part of the farmer, figs, oranges, lemons, olives, and grapes. Palermo is the capital. The most striking physical feature of Sicily is the great volcano in the northeast, Mount Etna, which is eleven thousand feet high. Its slopes consist of three belts, or zones. A fertile belt, as much as eleven miles broad in some parts, is succeeded above by a wooded region six or seven miles wide, where volcanic cones abound. Above this we reach a desert zone, a dismal tract full of hollows and chasms, and covered most of the year with snow and ice.

In this lofty region the air is chill and piercing; every sign of life ceases; not an insect crawls over the cold surface of the ground; not even the eagle soars on high to disturb the awful stillness; here only the thunder of the tempest, or the still more tremendous explosions of the volcano, are heard. In the midst of this gloomy region rises the principal cone, with a large crater about two miles and a half in circumference.

Northwest of Sicily lie the two large islands of Corsica and Sardinia. The former is mountainous, and only the valleys can be cultivated. The island is now owned by France. Sardinia, which is about the size of Massachusetts, belongs to Italy. It is fertile and rich in minerals. Game is plentiful. Off the coast of Spain are the Balearic Isles, which we pass on the right, as we steam along between the coasts of Spain and Africa. We cast anchor again under the great rock of Gibraltar, having completed our survey of this great inland sea, which covers nearly one million square miles.

### SWITZERLAND, "THE PLAYGROUND OF EUROPE"

The high mountain land of Europe is visited every summer by crowds of people from America and from many European countries, and on this account it has been called the "playground of Europe."

Suppose that for our visit to Switzerland we sail from Gibraltar to the Belgian port of Ostend. Here we find ourselves on the western side of the great plain, that stretches across Russia and all the middle of Europe. Proceeding south from Ostend, we observe that the land rises





From stereograph, copyright 1903 by Underwood & Underwood.

## POMPEII.

FROM THE MODEL OF THE RUINS IN THE NATIONAL MUSEUM, NAPLES.



gradually. We enter Switzerland at Basel, and soon find ourselves at Lucerne, in the very midst of the Alps, the highest mountains in Europe, which, although not so high as some of the great mountain chains of the earth, afford fine scenery and exhibit all the features of the loftiest elevations.

The Alps consist of a great many chains connected with each other. The principal ones run nearly parallel, and in the valleys between them we find streams that form the head waters of the Rhine, the Rhone, and the Danube. The lower slopes are covered with vineyards, orchards, wheat-fields, and meadows, with pleasant villages in every valley. Higher up are green forests of oak and walnut; then tall, dark pines and firs. Above these are clusters of rhododendrons covered with bright flowers, and green pastures, with hundreds of cows feeding upon them. Here little cottages, called chalets, are scattered about for the people who take care of the cows. Still higher are the tall, sharp peaks, covered with ice and snow, and glistening like silver in the sunshine. These are the highest mountains in Europe, and they are among the grandest in the world.

Bright streams flow through the pleasant green valleys, leaping over rocks and making fine waterfalls, some of which are so high that the water in falling is turned into fine spray, and looks like a shower of silvery dust falling from the bright blue sky. Sometimes the streams go leaping and dancing into little basin-shaped hollows, or deep gorges among the mountains. These make lovely lakes, such as Lucerne, Constance and Geneva in Switzerland, and Como in Italy.

High up in the mountains, beyond the forests and green pastures, the valleys are no longer gay with streams that dance and sparkle and sing; but in their stead we see glaciers, or "rivers of ice," creeping along so slowly that they seem not to move at all. In the lower valleys, where the summer is quite warm, the glacier melts away as fast as it descends, and the melting ice forms a fine stream.

Up among the snowy peaks terrible avalanches sometimes occur. During or after a winter storm a mass of ice becomes loosened from the rock on which it fell and begins to roll down the mountainside. As it moves onward the snow on which it rolls clings to it, making it larger and heavier every moment, until it becomes an immense mass of moving snow. Now it rushes swiftly along, dashing down the forest trees in its path, and never stopping until it reaches

the valley at the foot of the slope, where it sometimes buries whole villages.

The Swiss peasants, who have small farms on the mountains, keep cows and goats. As soon as the snow disappears, the men with their herds go away up to the high mountain pastures. There they stay until the snow comes again in the autumn, living in little cottages on the pastures, and taking care of their cows. In autumn they descend again, bringing with them the cheeses they have made, which they sell in the towns.

The peasants have a very merry time when the cows ascend to the pastures in the spring, for then the whole village has a holiday; and their friends go with them part of the way, shouting, singing, and making themselves very happy.

### AMONG THE ALPINE MOUNTAINS

From Lucerne we easily climb to the top of the Rigi. This mountain is not very high—in about three hours one can get to the top—but is well situated, and affords a magnificent view of the great heights that encircle it. A railway has been made to the summit for the convenience of those who wish to avoid reaching it on foot.

The plan recommended to us is to pass the night at one of the excellent hotels at the top. Shortly before sunrise we are aroused by the sound of a horn, and every visitor hurries to the best position to watch one of the finest sights that can be seen anywhere in the world—sunrise over the Alps!

If we are favored with a clear sky, a view of grandeur lies before us. Near us is the bold peak of Mount Pilatus; at our feet are lakes scarcely visible yet in the twilight, while all around are the eternal snows on the mountain-tops, glittering in the glow of the light of the coming sun.

From Lucerne, too, we pass to Chamonix, where we are in French territory, under the shadow of Mont Blanc, the highest of the Alps. This giant is nearly sixteen thousand feet above the level of the sea. As the snow-line is at the height of eight thousand feet here, nearly half the mountain lies within the region of the never-changing snow and ice. It overlooks the coldest part of the Alpine chain, and its summit is covered with snow. Immense glaciers stretch along its slope till they reach the valley of Chamonix, so famous among all visitors who love skating. The sides of this mountain appear like lofty needles, the sharp summits of which seem to penetrate the clouds. At its foot is the beautiful, cultivated, and fertile valley, with its villages and



little hamlets, which render the whole scene so very pretty.

The ascent of Mont Blanc is very toilsome and dangerous. There are guides who, for a large sum of money, go with the climbers to the summit. A party about to ascend the mountain must provide themselves with ladders, ropes, and hatchets, as well as with food for the journey. The ladders are used for climbing ice-peaks, and for crossing chasms of unknown depth. The ropes are used to tie the members of the party together in a long line, so that if one falls he may be upheld by the others. With the hatchets steps are cut on the steep walls of ice. Each climber takes an alpenstock—a strong staff, shod with iron—to aid him in keeping a firm footing on the ice, and each wears a veil to protect his eyes from the glare of the snow.

Toward the summit is an almost upright wall of ice, four or five hundred feet high. Should the foot slip, down like lightning the climber would glide, from one frozen crag to another, to be finally dashed to pieces thousands of feet below. Every footstep here must be cut out with the hatchet. When the wind is strong the ascent is impossible, for it would blow the climbers off the steep slope, so frail is their hold. Should some of them grow dizzy and fall, they would be likely to drag the whole party swiftly down to certain death.

Reaching the top of this icy wall, the climber finds a great dome of ice and snow, and this is the topmost height of Mont Blanc. From it on a clear day the fair land of France, even beyond Lyons, can be seen. The surrounding mountains stand in rank and order, like guards around their king, and the prospect is very grand.

This loftiest summit of the Alpine chain is near its narrowest part. The two highest peaks, Mont Blanc and Monte Rosa, are near one another, although they are separated by a deep valley. In the Alps, besides Mont Blanc and Monte Rosa, are at least one hundred mountain peaks upward of ten thousand feet high, all of which are constantly covered with snow. Vast glaciers come down from the higher valleys into the country below, widening as they descend, and often joining with other frozen streams, just as the waters of the different valleys combine and perform the rest of their downward course together.

#### AMONG THE SWISS AND ITALIAN LAKES

From Mont Blanc a chain runs southward

through the whole length of Italy; it is called the Apennine Mountains. Just south of Mont Blanc, in this line, is Mont Cenis, which was the first Alpine mountain to be pierced by a railway tunnel, while to the east is Mont St. Gotthard, through which also a railway tunnel has been made.

Before leaving Chamonix, however, we visit the famous St. Bernard Pass, where for ages the monks, aided by their dogs, have from their hospice assisted travelers in the difficult journey between France and Italy.

Mont St. Gotthard forms a kind of center from which the ranges of the Alps commence. The range running to the east divides into two branches, one of which follows the coast of the Adriatic, and the other continues to the eastward until, after being broken by the Danube, it rises again in the Carpathians. These branches are met at the famous defile or pass called the Iron Gate by spurs of the Balkan Mountains. As we follow in imagination along these heights, we see stretching away before us, ever northward and eastward, the great plain of Europe.

Let us survey the scene around us upon Mont St. Gotthard. On the Italian side the mountains dip steeply into the rich plain of Lombardy. At their feet are three of the loveliest lakes in Europe—Como, Maggiore, and Garda, which lie much lower than the Swiss lakes on the northern slope. A great feature of Como's beauty is the multitude of pretty houses and gardens that cluster upon its shores and on its mountainsides. They look so snug and so home-like! And at eventide, when everything seems to slumber, and the music of the vesper bells comes stealing over the water, one almost believes that nowhere else could be found such a paradise of comfort and rest.

The waters of these lakes and the surrounding mountains rush down into the river Po, which runs through the middle of the plain, making the soil extremely fertile. This river falls into the Adriatic, and brings down so much mud that the land is constantly being pushed out farther into the sea. On the opposite slope of St. Gotthard two great rivers take their rise—the Rhine and the Rhone. As we intend later to come down the Rhine, we turn our attention now to the other stream.

The Rhone Glacier, whose melting ice gives rise to the river, is a beautiful fan-shaped cluster of ice between five and six thousand feet above the sea.

The Rhone soon enters Lake Geneva, bringing with it a deposit of mud, which has partly filled





THE LAUNDRESS

From a Painting by Souza Pinto



the upper lake. Near the eastern end of this lovely lake stands the old castle of Chillon, rendered forever famous by Byron's poem. Leaving the lake, a clear and rapid stream at Geneva—the city where so many watches are made—the Rhone immediately enters France. At Lyons, famous for the manufacture of silk goods, it receives its largest tributary, passing through one of the finest regions of Europe, one continued vineyard, sheltered by mountains cultivated clear up to their summits. Mountains capped with snow appear at intervals through openings in the chains, which form the sides of the river valley.

The Rhone enters the Mediterranean, a little west of Marseilles, by four principal mouths enclosing a delta; but only the eastern channels are safe for ships.

### THE LAND OF DIKES AND CANALS

Almost immediately upon entering Holland, the Rhine divides and includes nearly all that country in its delta, which is shared by the Maas or Meuse, a large river that has already passed through Belgium and part of France. Their combined delta is the largest in Europe.

We are now in a country unlike every other in many particulars, but especially in this, that it is actually below the level of the sea. To keep the sea from breaking in, Holland is, as you know, protected by huge dikes, or embankments, which have been constructed with great patience and skill, and are carefully watched to prevent disaster from a flood like that which occurred many hundred years ago, when the sea burst in and formed the great opening of the Zuyder Zee. Canals run all through the country, and in summer the people move about in little boats, instead of traveling on roads in carriages, as in other lands. In winter the canals are frozen over, and then they are covered with skaters. The farmers' wives skate to market, with their baskets of butter on their heads; the men in the city skate to their places of business; and the children skate to school.

The country is almost entirely farm and pasture land. The Dutch are clean, patient, and industrious. They have reclaimed their land from the sea, and have fought and suffered for their freedom and their religion, Dutch patriots having resisted the Spanish tyranny with much perseverance and success.

Rotterdam, the principal port of Holland, is on the chief mouth of the Rhine, and like Amsterdam, the capital, it is crossed in every direction by "street-canal." The ships which bring goods to the merchants sail to the very doors of their

shops, and tall masts rise in the middle of the city, presenting a very pretty appearance.

The Schelde, or Scheldt, which also empties into the Rhine delta, flows through the thickly populated and industrious little kingdom of Belgium, and has the inland port of Antwerp upon its banks. This quaint old city has a large trade, and forms the outlet for the manufactures of Belgium. These manufactures are carried on chiefly at Ghent, which is engaged in the cotton manufacture, and Liège, famous for manufactures of iron and steel, which it owes to its situation in the midst of a district abounding in coal and iron ore. Brussels, the capital, is a handsome and interesting city. From Brussels we visit Waterloo, where Napoleon was defeated in 1815.

Great quantities of timber are disposed of in these lower reaches of the Rhine; it has been floated down the stream and its tributaries in rafts from the high forest lands in the south. The pine-stems are loosely bound together with willow bands, so that the raft, in its descent, can shape itself to the windings of the stream. The rafts may be seen curving in and out in a very curious fashion, while raftsmen in front and steersmen behind skilfully guide them on their way. Many of the rushing streams that feed the Rhine also supply the water-power to work the sawmills.

### THE PLEASANT LAND OF FRANCE

Two physical types have been noticed in France. In the north, there are people of tall stature, light hair, light eyes, and oval-shaped head. These are generally taken to represent the purely Celtic Gaul unmixed with the pre-existing inhabitants, though possibly they owe these characteristics to the Teutonic and Scandinavian elements that have been mentioned. South of the Loire the average stature is lower, the head rounder, and the eyes and hair dark. This phenomenon is explained to be due to the persistence of the Iberian type. It must be admitted, however, that the highly civilized races of western Europe have undergone so many racial transformations that it is impossible to analyze them with minute precision.

Mentally the French are characterized by the vivacity and quickness which are the typical traits of the Celtic intellect. They share with the inhabitants of southern Europe generally the habit of temperance in diet, which is due in a large measure to the lighter strain undergone by the system than it is subjected to in the more bracing climate of the north.

It is from the *bourgeoisie*—the great middle



RAYMOND POINCARÉ  
President of the French Republic



class—and the peasantry that we get the most typical Frenchman. In the various political catastrophes that have befallen France the aristocracy have practically disappeared as a social force. The possession of a title is of little assistance to its owner in obtaining State employment, and the few remaining representatives of noble families, for the most part impoverished and retired, exercise hardly any influence on the character of the country at large.

The *bourgeois*, however—a name which covers professional men, merchants, tradesmen, and public functionaries—is the central figure in French life, at all events in the towns. Frenchmen of this class are by no means wanting in alert intelligence and the power of forming independent and shrewd judgments. They are, however, terribly afflicted with a desire for uniformity, at any rate in outward conduct. Their lives are regulated entirely with a view to observing *les convenances*, which means that they are more conventional and subservient to the opinions of their neighbors than even the corresponding classes in our own country. Thrift is one of their most important characteristics. They have a horror of debt, and it is almost second nature to a Frenchman to economize and live within his means, however small. This trait in their character sometimes appears ridiculous, but it has done much to restore France to the great position among nations which she came near to losing altogether after the Franco-Prussian War. Ostentation in dress or style of living is rarely seen. On the other hand, the French are generous in setting before strangers the best they have to offer. Consequently the tempting variety of the dishes and the simplicity with which they are served, combined with the good taste and absence of stiffness shown by his hosts, procure for the guest in a typical French house far more enjoyment than he would experience in a more showy mansion.

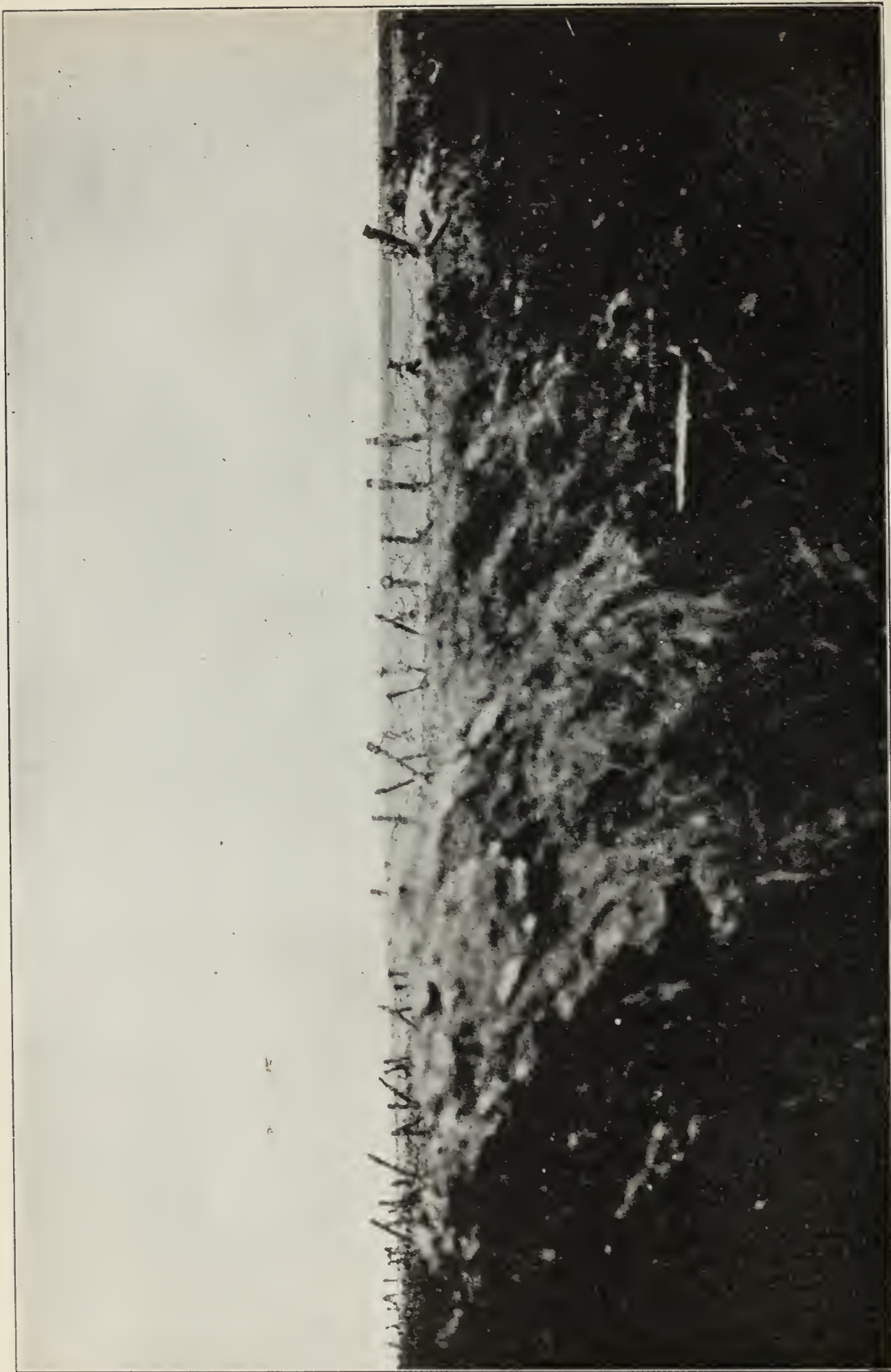
We are rather apt to suppose that the frequency with which the French have changed their forms of government is due to fickleness and levity of disposition. This, however, is not altogether true. The ordinary Frenchman troubles himself very little about politics, and makes the best of whatever *régime* he may happen to be living under for the moment. He is far too much concerned in the care of his small fortune to wish for social upheavals. Politics he leaves to the professional politician.

Until 1882 France was badly off in the matter of education, and this accounts to some extent for the lack of depth and knowledge displayed

in the easy rattle of French conversation. Now, however, education is general and compulsory. Primary instruction is given in the communal schools found everywhere throughout France, while secondary education is provided in *lycées* or *collèges*. Higher education of the kind afforded by English universities is to be obtained in the "academies," of which there are sixteen. Technical training is also supplied, and the whole system of education is under the direction of a Minister of Instruction.

The *lycée* is eminently a republican institution. Boys of all grades meet on a footing of equality. They wear a plain, dark uniform, and their life is conducted on semi-military principles. Although the teaching is of excellent quality, there is none of the training in manners which is found in English public schools. The State does not aim at turning out gentlemen, and recognizes no class distinctions. *Lycées* and compulsory service in the army supply the country with a monotonous type of citizen and establish a cut-and-dried pattern to which everybody and everything must conform. The *collège*, on the other hand, is slightly more aristocratic in its methods. More attention is paid to manners, and the pupils are more strictly looked after than in the *lycées*. The relations between the sexes are regulated with less freedom among the French than in most civilized countries. Girls and boys do not come much in contact with each other. Until she is married, the young girl is kept in strict seclusion. Marriages are arranged by the parents of the young couple, and are generally business transactions. When a young man wishes to marry, his parents look out for a suitable wife among their friends, and arrange the matter of the lady's dowry for him. Every girl is expected to bring something into the common stock of married life.

The French peasant must next occupy our attention. France is the largest wheat-producing country in Europe, and the land is held by a vast number of small proprietors, each farming a minute portion. This arises from the system of *partage forcé*. At the death of a proprietor his property is divided among his children, so that it is seldom possible to find large holdings anywhere. Even if a man by saving and diligence add to his small estate, the inexorable laws of nature—and the Republic—soon reduce it to tiny proportions. The French peasant is industrious and frugal. He is, as a rule, intensely ignorant of every thing that goes on outside his little sphere of life, which is of the narrowest and most conventional type imaginable. Such



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NO MAN'S LAND

The view which greeted our boys from the trenches in the Lorraine sector, on the western front



intelligence as he has—and he is not without considerable native shrewdness—he concentrates entirely on his life-long struggle to win a scanty subsistence from the soil. His ownership of his little plot gives him a sturdy independence which saves him from the degradation in which the agricultural classes of other countries are so often sunk. His dwelling is of the poorest description—an unplastered hut of at most two rooms, bare and frequently far from clean. Meat he seldom tastes. Life is chiefly supported on a soup made of vegetables and scraps of bacon, and on bread and milk.

The blue blouse is the universal dress of the French lower classes, even in towns, where the postman goes his rounds usually dressed almost exactly like the peasant in the fields. Education is doing much to raise the intellectual level of the peasants, and before very long the narrowness of their outlook may be expected to disappear.

### RUSSIAN DOMINIONS

The collection of states and provinces that we used to know as Russia is a great domain lying to the east of the Baltic Sea, Germany, and Austria. Altogether, it occupies more than half the area of Europe. The traveler who journeys across Russia from north to south finds first a frozen country, much like the northern parts of North America. South of this cold, dreary region stretches an immense forest belt, inhabited by bears, wolves, deer, and numerous other animals, from many of which fine furs are obtained. In all this vast region not a single city, not a village, and hardly a farm, can be seen.

Farther south, in the center of Russia, are smaller forests, with cultivated land, villages, and rich cities. Railroads are not common, as they are in our own country. In winter travelers wrap themselves in warm fur cloaks, and with swift horses and large sledges they glide smoothly and pleasantly over the sparkling snow. But the forests are dangerous; great numbers of wolves sometimes following a sledge for miles.

In the western part of Russia, near the Baltic Sea, is the city of Petrograd, the capital. Here, the summers are hot, but very short, and the winters are long and very cold. The ground is covered with deep snow; the river and the Gulf of Finland are frozen. The people, wrapped in furs, amuse themselves in sledging and sliding down hill. As the land about the city is flat, "ice-hills" are built on purpose for this sport. There hardly seems any springtime in Russia; for almost as soon as the snow and ice have dis-

appeared, the fields and trees are clothed in the tints of summer.

Perhaps no city in Europe is so full of palaces and other fine buildings as Petrograd. The residence that used to be occupied by the czar, and which is called the Winter Palace, is one of the largest and grandest in the world.

The river Neva, on which Petrograd stands, drains Lake Ladoga, the largest in Europe, and brings down a vast quantity of water to the sea.

### THE MIGHTY VOLGA AND THE GREAT CITIES OF RUSSIA

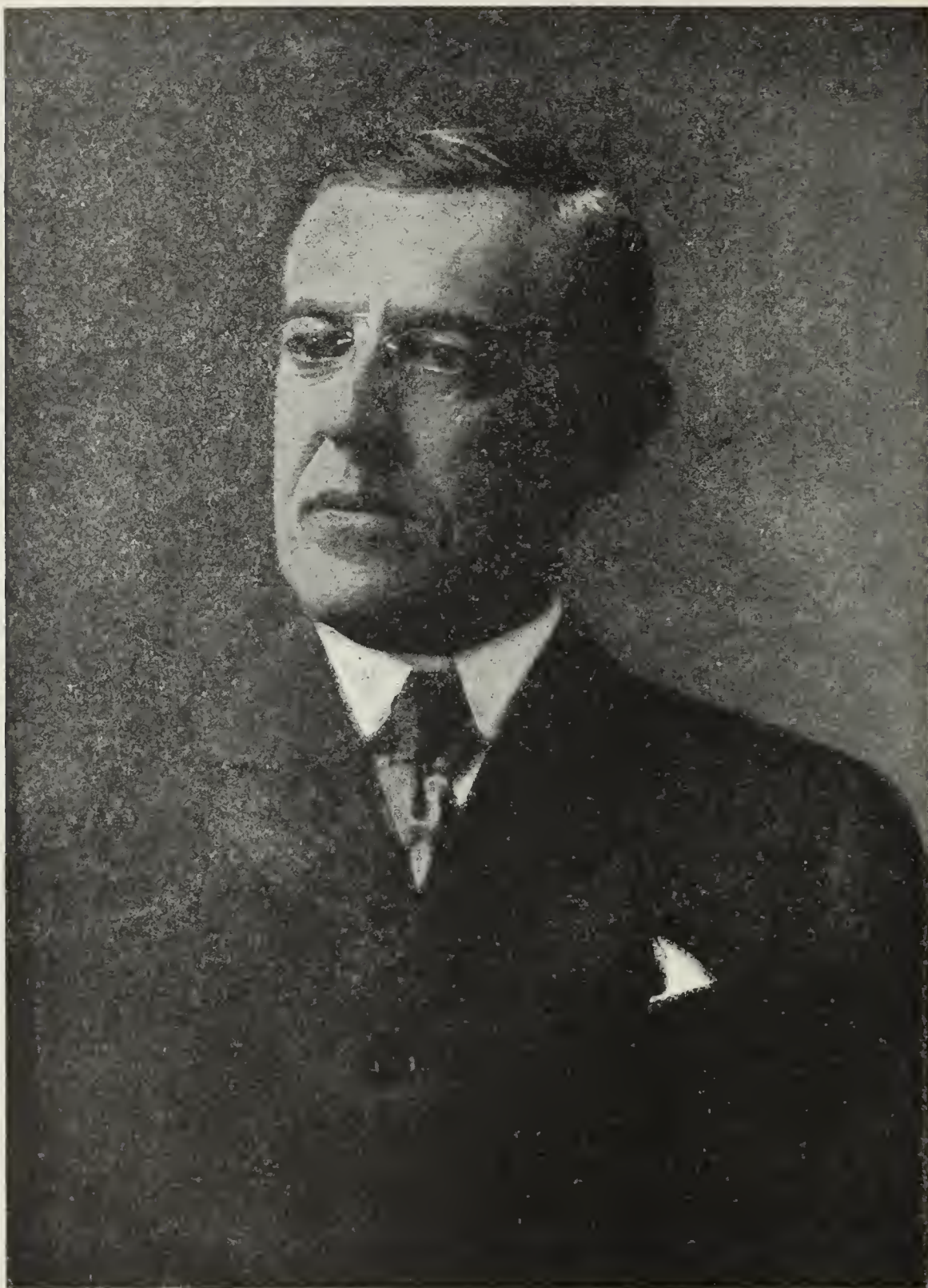
The river Volga is one of the principal physical features of Russia. It is the longest European river, and falls into the largest inland sea in the world—the Caspian Sea.

Moscow, the former capital of the Russian Empire, and almost in the center of the country, is one of the most curious cities in the world. It is round, and covers a wide space of ground. In the central part of the city is the Kremlin, containing the palace of the Czars, with cathedrals and squares built at different times and in various styles. The city is at once beautiful and rich, magnificent and mean.

Nijni-Novgorod, on the Volga, is noted for its great fair held annually, where tea, cotton, furs, and skins, together with cheap German goods, change hands. Splendid steamers descend the Volga from this point, and here visitors generally embark for the voyage down the mighty river. The Volga abounds with fine fish; in all its long course there is not a single cataract, but nearer the sea it divides into a great number of arms, and empties into the Caspian by seventy mouths.

The third city of Russia is Warsaw, once the capital of the kingdom of Poland, while Odessa, the great wheat port of the Black Sea, holds the fourth place. Archangel, the northern port on the White Sea, was once the only Russian seaport; but since then the country has extended to the Baltic and Black seas. Riga is the chief Russian port in the Baltic.

In the southwest of Russia the low plains, called steppes, are about sixty feet above the level of the Black Sea. Throughout the southern part of the steppes there is either a thin soil or no soil at all. This barren ground gives place farther inland to a very rich, black soil, which yields heavy crops of wheat, without manure or farming, except of the simplest kind. These parts of the steppes supply large quantities of grain;



*Courtesy of Leslie's Weekly*

WOODROW WILSON

Twenty-eighth President of the United States



and they have lately been opened by railways, and steamboats on the great rivers, to the gain of Europe generally.

Russia in Europe is so vast that, were one of the dwellers of the extreme north of that country ordered to a warm climate, he might find his way to Sebastopol, farther south than Venice, without crossing an arm of the sea or ever leaving Russian soil, and when he reached the end of his journey he would find himself among the camels and orange-groves of the Crimea.

In the center of the country we find the true Russians; but from this part, whatever direction we take, we shall get first to a mixed and afterward to a foreign population. Thus, northward we get among the Finns; westward, we get among the Poles; eastward and southward, among the Tartars.

### RUSSIA AND ITS STORY

Until modern times, Russia was not reckoned among the European Powers. A little while before the landing of the Pilgrims in New England it extended itself to the White Sea, and opened the port of Archangel, having previously been an entirely inland country. Long after this, Finland and the spot where St. Petersburg now stands belonged to Sweden, while the Crimea and parts bordering on the Black Sea were a portion of the Turkish Empire.

But the Russians, having commenced to extend their country, have continued to do so ever since. Unlike the British people, whose growth has scattered them all over the globe, the Russians have aimed at a continuous empire, and have added country after country in the course of the last four hundred years, until the Czar now rules from the Baltic to the Pacific, and from the Arctic Ocean to the Black Sea.

The real founder of the greatness of Russia was the Emperor Peter, commonly called Peter the Great. He was born in 1672, and after reigning for some years with his half-brother Ivan, in 1696 he became sole ruler of his country. In order to learn more of the power and civilization of other countries, he determined to see for himself, and left Russia as a private person. He worked for some time in Holland as a common shipwright, and lived alone in a small hut. While he thus labored, he knew what was going on at home, and wrote his orders regularly to his officers in Russia. He next visited London, where William III. received him and gave him the opportunity of learning all he could of trade, manufactures, and arts, as they were in England in

those days. We can fancy the interest with which this lover of the sea would watch the busy shipping of the Thames and study the warships then in course of building at Chatham.

On leaving England, Peter proceeded to Vienna, where news reached him of a rebellion which called him home. This he soon crushed, and he severely punished the rebels. In 1700 he went to war with Sweden, and though defeated at first, he was finally victorious. Next the Sultan of Turkey declared war against him, and Peter narrowly escaped capture. By both these wars he added to the Russian Empire, and soon began to carry out his great scheme for building a new capital which should have the advantage of being near the sea. The site he chose, though admirable in other respects, was marshy. But Peter was not to be easily turned from any scheme, once he had made up his mind.

Large wooden piles were driven into the soft soil, until a firm foundation was made by the aid of earth, and other materials, brought from a distance. No one driving through St. Petersburg to-day, with its numerous palaces of marble and granite, could believe that it had ever been possible to build such palaces on a swamp. The city was called St. Petersburg after its founder, and it was made the capital instead of Moscow.

Peter not only extended the limits of his empire both in Europe and Asia, but helped his people by his encouragement of trade, navigation, and manufactures. By the spread of education he brought about an immense change in the manners and customs of the people. His strong will stamped out opposition while he lived, and his influence was felt long after his death. Yet in many things he acted with almost savage brutality, and he appears sometimes to have delighted in scenes of cruelty. He died in 1725.

The mass of the Russian people are backward in education, and the lower classes have long been little better than slaves.

Russia remained an oligarchy until the 20th century. The Czar Nicholas was weak but well-meaning, and tried to advance his people and to keep peace with other countries. He was suspected of treachery, however, during the Great War and was forced to abdicate and at length was executed. Russia passed through the throes of a succession of revolutions, broke up into separate states, and underwent a season of terrible famine and suffering. The Russians, however, are a strong race and when the people generally are better educated and become capable of self-control, they will, it is believed, resume a large place in human history.

### THE LAND OF STORY, SONG, AND MERRY LAUGHTER

Italy is so interesting to the traveler that, although we have learned something of it in our trips along the sunny coasts of the Mediterranean, and from its connection in the north with the Alpine system of mountains, rivers, and lakes, we will now revisit that fascinating country and see it more in detail.

Being nearly surrounded by the Mediterranean, Italy is one of the hottest countries of Europe. The sky is almost always blue and clear, and the country, with its purple mountains and green valleys, its vineyards and meadows, is always pleasant. The sun is so very bright that most crops grow better by being somewhat shaded. For this reason the fields are planted with rows of trees—mulberries, olives, and others. At the foot of these trees the grape-vines are planted. They climb the trees and cover their branches; shoots of the vine go from one tree to another, hanging between them in graceful loops. Between the rows of trees fine crops of wheat and Indian corn are grown.

The southern region, especially the island of Sicily, is the garden of Italy, although the plain of Lombardy, around the River Po, is one of the most productive spots in Europe. The south, however, is afflicted by a hot, choking wind, called the sirocco, which blows across from Africa.

Italy is a land full of ancient cities. Naples, the largest, we have visited already. Rome, the capital, is by far the most ancient and most interesting. The student of bygone days goes there to stand in the Forum, where the ancient Romans held their meetings and dispensed justice; to visit the Colosseum, a huge theater, like a great circus, where the old Romans delighted to witness many cruel sports; to pass under the Arch of Titus, which keeps in mind the destruction of Jerusalem.

The student of art goes to Rome, that he may study the works in painting and statuary of the greatest artists that ever lived. Thousands of religious pilgrims turn their steps to Rome, the great center of the Roman Catholic religion; to worship in St. Peter's and look upon the Vatican, the huge palace of the Pope. These great buildings contain several chapels, a famous library, and a gallery filled with beautiful pictures.

Florence is a beautiful city, and was the first capital of the modern kingdom of Italy. Pisa is visited for its famous Leaning Tower. Milan is noted for its stately cathedral, built entirely of marble. Upon the whole, this is one of the finest and most pleasing cities of Europe, standing, as

it does, in a sea of green leaves, as Venice lies in a sea of green waters. Turin, on the River Po, shows a striking difference from most Italian cities, as it is new and regular, instead of old and in ruins. All round the town fine trees shelter us from the rays of the sun, and the views of the Alps are magnificent. Of Venice and Brindisi we have learned something already, in our journey down the Mediterranean Sea.

### ITALY AND ITS STORY

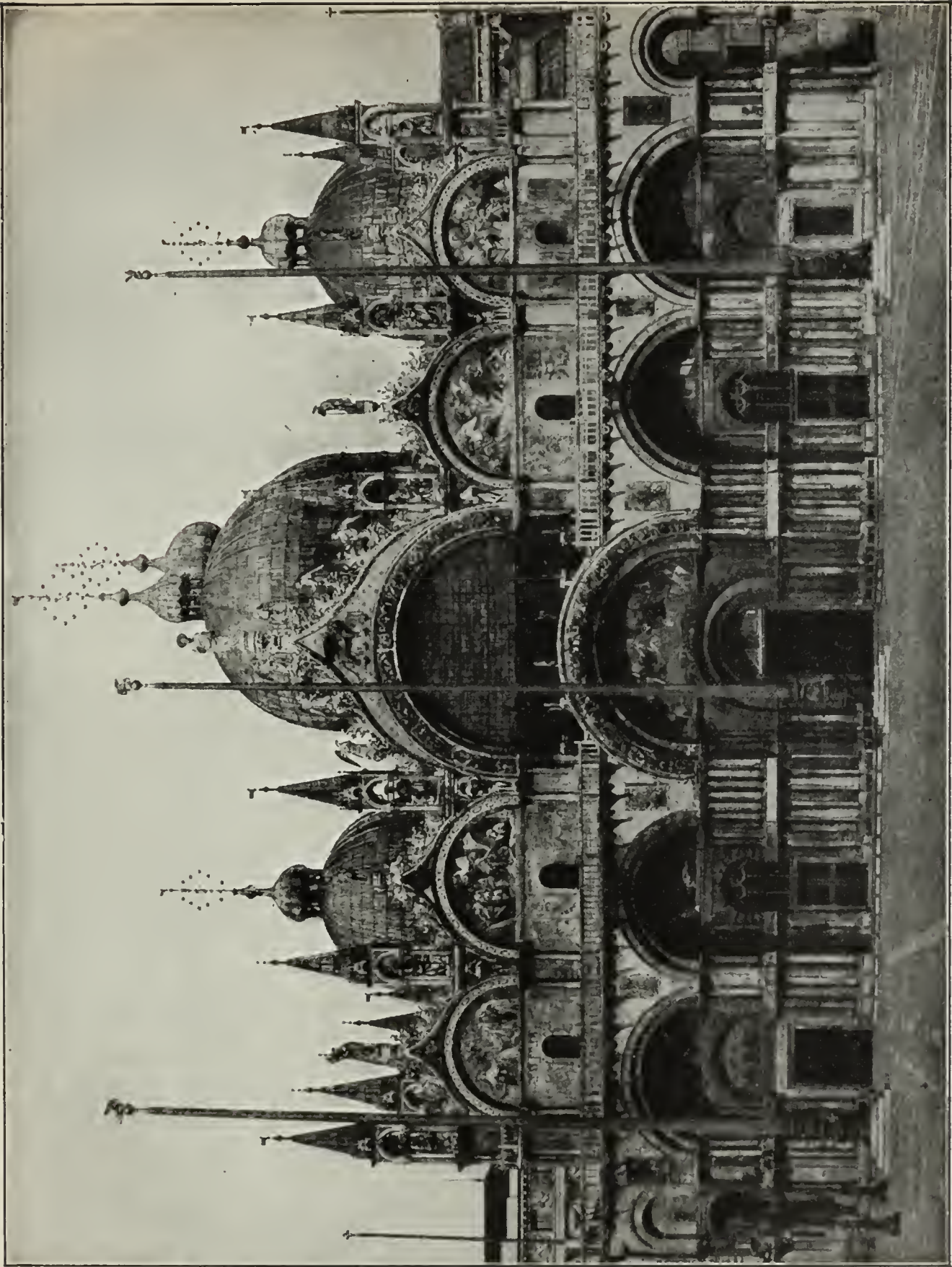
The very name of Italy sends our thoughts wandering back over a long and glorious history. More than five hundred years before the days of Christ, Rome was a powerful city, and her brave people spread their conquests all over the world then known. The Romans carried order and good government wherever they went, and were as great in the power to rule as the Greeks had been skilful in all that was beautiful and artistic.

After the Romans became rich and mighty, they became the prey of the wild nations from the forests of the north, who conquered them and overthrew the Roman Empire. But Rome, the "Eternal City," again became the mistress of Europe in another sense. Her bishop, the Pope, as the head of the Christian Church of the West, ruled kings and emperors far and near.

All through the Middle Ages and down to 1860, Italy was divided into a great number of states and independent cities. These were almost always at war with one another. Naples, or the "Two Sicilies," was the largest kingdom. The Papal States, or States of the Church, stretched across the middle of the peninsula. In the north, Florence, Genoa, Milan, Venice, and other cities were independent. Sardinia included a part of what is now the southeast corner of France. These independent cities of the north were great rival trading centers. Their trade and commerce made them rich, and their wealth was spent in the cultivation of learning and of art. Florence was a great center of culture and learning, and the home of the great family of the Medici—among whom were Lorenzo the Magnificent, and Pope Leo X., two of the greatest personages of their time.

Venice, after a long rivalry with Genoa and Pisa—a rivalry that caused many wars, in which she was sometimes beaten—became mistress of the sea. All the rich commerce of the East passed through this city. We have already described her splendid position, standing actually in the sea, to which the city was annually wedded with great ceremony. Her dukes, or doges, were among the





CATHEDRAL OF ST. MARK, VENICE.



most powerful rulers in Europe, and the wealth of her merchants was the envy of kings. Her decline dates from the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, which opened up a new way to India and finally ruined the trade of Venice.

These cities of northern Italy led the way, among European cities, in art, poetry, and learning. Dante was one of the greatest poets that ever lived. Michael Angelo would be remembered as a great painter if he had not been one of the greatest sculptors the world has ever known. He helped to adorn St. Peter's, the great cathedral of Rome, at the time of Pope Leo X., but his greatest work is a statue of Moses.

About the middle of the last century, a great movement commenced for the uniting of the Italian states into one kingdom. The south was badly ruled by Ferdinand II., while the northerners longed to drive out the Austrians, who ruled Venice and its territory. Although Victor Emmanuel, the King of Sardinia, was the head of the movement, Garibaldi was its hero, and it was he who really brought into existence the kingdom of Italy. Garibaldi was an Italian patriot who had been already exiled from his native land, when, with only a thousand volunteers, he landed in Sicily in May, 1860. The story of his adventure is wonderful. In about two months he had driven the hated Neapolitans out of Sicily, and in August he crossed over to the mainland. From the sea-coast to Naples his progress was a great march of triumph. He entered Naples without any troops, and at once established a new and popular government.

Victor Emmanuel, who had already been helped by the French to drive the Austrians out of the north, joined Garibaldi in Naples, and the united armies soon finished the war in this part. A few weeks before, a rebellion had broken out in the Papal States, and Victor Emmanuel was proclaimed King of Italy, which he now ruled from the Alps to the sea, with the exception of Rome, which was still under the government of the Pope, supported by a body of French soldiers. When France entered upon the war with Germany, in 1870, she recalled all her troops stationed in Rome. The Italian troops took possession of Rome, and the ancient city became the capital of a united empire under Victor Emmanuel.

Garibaldi's great work was done; and when he died, in 1882, all Italy was cast into mourning. No name is more honored in Italy than that of the great deliverer of his country. Other men, like Mazzini, may have given him the grand ideas, but Garibaldi was the soldier who worked

them out on the field of battle. And to-day one of the most striking monuments in Rome is that erected to his honor. It stands on one of the seven hills overlooking the grand old city, and occupies perhaps the proudest place of any monument in the world.

Italy has made great progress of late years in many directions. In no country in Europe is the traveler more warmly welcomed; in no other country is there so much to interest and instruct him; and nowhere is it more easy to be pleasantly idle than in Italy, a perfect dreamland of the past, a land of song, and story, and merry laughter. And now to see the land of an earlier and not less glorious people!

### THE ANCIENT HOME OF ART AND LEARNING

Greece, which lies in Southeastern Europe, encircled by the waters of the Mediterranean, is the ancient home of art and learning. Three thousand years ago Athens was the center of a famous kingdom, and of a people whose love of beauty and knowledge still commands our respect and admiration.

The Grecian love of knowledge and art showed itself in a thousand different ways. Men were admired for their learning, or for their skill in the arts, or their strength, or their cleverness in manly games. The women were beautiful and stately, though perhaps they had not the sweetness and gentleness we admire most now. The Greeks made everything beautiful. They would not have names or words that were not beautiful, and they loved beautiful names so much that they renamed many places which had not names of poetical sound.

Though ancient Greece has gone, we have many grand old ruins. We may also see the Greek Catholic Church, which is the national church of all the Russias, as well as the church of the Greeks. But we have really a modern kingdom, that has only regained and held its place among the nations, by the help of European Powers.

The Greeks are often spoken of as a nation of sailors and traders, but in these days, though they make such splendid seamen, they are no longer so remarkable for their love of a roving life on the sea. Piræus, where, let us suppose, we are landing, is still as fine a harbor as ever. We are near Athens now, and, leaving our steamer, we take train for a little journey of seven miles to the ancient and beautiful city.

Athens is interesting to us because in days long past it was the home of some of the cleverest





From stereograph, copyright by Underwood & Underwood.

# THE MODERN GREEKS AND THE BALKAN PEOPLES.

1. A MONTENEGRIN.

2. A GREEK SOLDIER.

3. A GROUP OF PEASANTS, GREECE.



men who ever lived. But it is also interesting because we may still see picturesque ruins of splendid temples. For countless ages there has been a city on this spot, and we may still stand in the shadow of the height called the Acropolis, and mark on its summit the stately columns of the Parthenon, the temple of the goddess Athene.

Greece, however, is not concerned wholly with the dead past. She is a living nation, full of fresh life and new hopes. We see vineyards everywhere we go. Among the many islands of Greece there is Corinth now, which gave its name to currants. Patras is the flourishing seaport that sends abroad large supplies of currants, figs, and olive-oil.

Visitors do well to come to Greece at Christmas time, or early in the year. The climate then is wonderfully beautiful, the sky blue, and the sun warm. Let us get up early one morning, during our short visit, and see Athens in the rich red glow of the rising sun. It is a scene of the greatest grandeur and beauty, such as only poets can express. But before the summer comes we must prepare to depart, for the dust and heat, and the glare of the sun on all those new white marble buildings, would spoil our delightful memories of a charming country. We will regretfully say farewell.

Now a word about some little nations that were our allies in the Great War.

### PLUCKY LITTLE RUMANIA

To the ethnologist the Rumanians are perhaps the most interesting of the Balkan peoples. The kingdom of Rumania, comprising the united provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia, was recognized as an independent principality in 1878, and was promoted to the dignity of a kingdom in 1881. The population is estimated at over 5,800,000, but it must be remembered that this does not include more than half of the Rumanian people; quite as many of the race are to be found in adjoining territories.

Physically the Rumanians are characterized by dark skin, black hair, and black eyes. It may or may not be the case that they have been influenced in this respect by an infusion of gypsy blood. Gypsies are to be found in great numbers in Rumania. The Rumanians are well built and muscular, and are altogether a fine race.

In the cities French manners prevail. The people are mostly agriculturists, and in the country they are primitive, lazy, and inclined to be suspicious of strangers, though hospitable. The artistic sense is well developed, and some of the

designs of their textile fabrics and household utensils seem to date from Roman times.

The men generally wear a long blouse of coarse, white linen, drawn in at the waist by a number of cords passed round the body or by a wide belt. The trousers are made of the same material as the blouse. Some wear boots, but sandals are most usually worn, the cords used to keep them on their feet being wound some distance up the leg. Hats of common felt or cheap cloth are commonly worn, but a high cylindrical hat of sheep-skin is the national head-dress. In winter the coarse linen blouse is replaced by a garment of sheep-skin; and when wrapped in this, the Rumanian is impervious to snow or frost. The women usually wear a kerchief folded over the head and fastened under the chin. The upper part of the body is clothed in a loose-fitting jacket or bodice, sometimes white, but often of some showy material. The lower limbs are covered with a skirt which is generally of a darker material than the jacket, though sometimes bright and showy in color. This is the every-day dress of the Rumanian peasant. The Sunday and holiday dress is naturally more elaborate in color.

The Rumanian peasant is frugal in his diet, which consists principally of milk, eggs, maize, porridge, and pig's flesh. Drunkenness is common, however.

The dwellings in some of the rural districts are still of a rude type, consisting in great measure of pits dug in the earth and then covered with more or less art. A large hole is dug deep in the ground. Often it is lined with clay. From the surface of the ground, or from a wall raised a foot or two above the soil round the edge of the pit, a roof is formed of branches and twigs. In the center of this a hole is left for the smoke. Sometimes a simple doorway at one end gives entrance, and the occupants descend to the floor either by steps or on an inclined plane, while at the end opposite the door a window is often inserted. There are two rooms, in which the entire family live; and as animals share the accommodation, dirt and disease are widespread. Marsh fever is especially prevalent. Yet there are some who maintain that these dwellings are not unhealthy. They were originally constructed in this way in order to escape the notice of the marauding bands which from time to time overran the Danubian territories. They were formerly surrounded by trees, which have been cut down for firewood. The spirit of conservatism causes many peasants, otherwise well to do, to prefer these underground dwellings to the





A BASHI-BAZOUK

From the painting by Charles Bargue  
Bashi-Bazonk is the name given to a species of volunteer mounted troops  
employed by the Turks. In time of peace they do police duty.





modern cottages found in the villages of the higher lands.

The Rumanian women, like the women in several other continental countries, do most of the work that is done in the fields, and are said to be more industrious than the men. They are even called on to do the work of navvies, and toil with the men in making roads, digging out railway-cuttings, and in heavy labor generally. Men may be seen working in the fields with square-bladed spades, while the women use an implement with a heart-shaped blade and a handle as long as a broomstick.

Of the amusements of the Rumanians, the most striking is the *hora*, or national dance. The following description has been given by an eye-witness. After the dancers had gone one or two paces in pairs, moving in a circle, the men separated from the women. The latter then moved singly round the men, as if they were seeking some object dear to them. The men then drew together, and moved their feet like marching soldiers; next, using their long sticks, they made irregular springs and uttered loud cries, as though engaged in battle. The women wandered about like shadows. At last the men with joyful gestures rushed toward them, as though they had found them after great danger, led them back into the circle, and danced with joy and animation.

This dance is said to be illustrative of the conquered condition of the people. M. de Richard describes it as a complete poem. "Who knows," he continues, "of what long-forgotten incursion of the barbarians it is preserved as a reminiscence?"

### SERBIA, FIRST IN THE WAR FOR FREEDOM

The Serbians are physically a stalwart race. They are hospitable, energetic, and brave. Though proud, quick-tempered, and apt to fight on comparatively slight occasion, they are fond of social intercourse, and cling to old customs and old beliefs.

Their dwellings are of the poorest kind, consisting merely of mud-huts, which are usually small, low, and without anything in the way of ornament. The Serbian farmer could afford a more pretentious house if he chose. Centuries of oppression under Turkish rule drove the people to conceal whatever wealth they possessed; and this habit, now become a second nature, accounts for the lack of ostentation in the Serbian manner of living.

The Serbians are thoroughly democratic in their institutions; each family owns the ground it tills, so that in the country day-laborers are scarce. Few will consent to become household servants, and cooks and men-servants come mostly from Croatia or Hungary. When a farmer is unable, with the help of his family, to gather in all the produce of his land, he applies to his neighbors, who will readily come to his assistance, but would be insulted by the offer of money. They act on the principle of service for service, and expect in a similar emergency to receive help in their turn. All Serbians are proud, and are equal under the king. There is no aristocracy, and the middle class, merchants, shopkeepers, and others, are few. The Serbian who works in the field does not recognize a superior in the better-dressed and better-educated official.

There is no pauperism in the country. The old and sick are maintained by their neighbors in the rural districts, and in the towns by the commune or the workmen's associations.

Education is compulsory and free, and is making rapid strides. There are schools in every village. Not only do children of all classes receive free education, but very poor children obtain a small allowance from the Government to support them during the time they must study in the secondary and higher schools. When they can do so, poor students eke out this allowance by doing work of some kind in the houses of their richer fellow-students. In this way low birth and poverty are no barrier to the attainment of the highest administrative and official positions.

The Serbians are an eminently pious race. The fasts of the Church are rigidly observed, and the peasant never fails in the morning to invoke a blessing on the coming day. Every family in Serbia has its patron saint. The care of this patron saint is committed to the sons, and not to the daughters, who concern themselves with the saints allotted to their future husbands. The feast of the patron saint is an ancient custom, going back to the times when the patriarchal family lived together under the same roof. It is practised everywhere even at the present day, the busy towns not excepted, and it lasts several days. The house is decorated with branches and flowers, and the nearest relations meet at a banquet presided over by the head of the family. A loaf made of the finest wheaten flour is set in the center of the table. A cross is hollowed out in the middle of the loaf, and in the center is fixed a candlestick with three

branches, all of which are lighted in honor of the Trinity. A prayer is said, in which the blessing of God is invoked upon the whole family. Dessert follows with toasts and songs, and the party give themselves up to merry-making.

Finally, you will want to read a few words about that martyr of the nations, who gave her life for honor and liberty, Belgium.

## BELGIUM, LAND OF MANY SORROWS

The little kingdom of Belgium has an area of 11,373 square miles, being about one-eighth of the size of Great Britain. It makes up for its small dimensions by being the most densely populated country in Europe. There is no such thing as a Belgian race of people, though there is a Belgian nation. In the days of Julius Cæsar the country was inhabited by the Belgæ, and formed part of what was afterward known as Gallia Belgica. The Belgæ appear to have differed in dialect, institutions, and laws from the Celts of the other parts of Gaul. They are described by ancient writers as "fair" Celts.

At the present day the population of Belgium is partly of Celtic and partly of Teutonic origin. The Flemings are still as clearly Teutonic as they were a thousand years ago, while Celtic characteristics are as unmistakably apparent in the Walloons, who are descended from the ancient Belgæ. Both sections are members of the same Church, and have other interests in common. Yet, though subject to one king and governed by the same code of laws, they have not become so thoroughly blended as to produce a distinct national type.

The men are of medium height, muscular, and of upright bearing. The Walloons in the southern provinces are nearly as brisk in deportment and as polished in manners as their French neighbors. The Flemings, who inhabit the western and northern provinces, are endowed with greater vivacity than the Dutch, whose land borders theirs and who belong to the same race.

French is the official language of the country. About 45 per cent. of the inhabitants speak Flemish, 41 per cent. French, while 11 per cent. speak both French and Flemish.

There is nothing in the prevalent costume of the Belgians to distinguish it from that which may be seen in the streets of London or Paris.

Apart from the capital, however, their cities still maintain characteristics which do not change with the caprice of fashion. The observer is forcibly convinced that they grew into existence in the romantic past, when the conditions of life were unlike those that prevailed in the 19th century. What were held to be the most prominent characteristics of six historic Belgian cities were mentioned in monkish verses composed many centuries ago. Those characteristics are said to remain to some extent at the present time. The Latin lines, translated, proclaim: Brussels rejoices in noble men; Antwerp in money; Ghent in hatters; Bruges in pretty girls; Lovain in learned men; and Malines in fools. Hatters were said to be characteristic of Ghent because of the frequency with which the king found it necessary to humiliate some of the ever-turbulent citizens, by condemning them to traverse the streets under guard, with manacles on their wrists and heavy iron chains on their necks. The reason for distinguishing the people of Malines as "mostly fools" is the story that once, when they saw the moon shining through the cathedral tower, they thought the cherished building was on fire, sounded the alarm, roused up the watch, and did all they could to extinguish the conflagration by means of pumps, hose, and buckets of water. The Flemings, in what they considered an improved version of the poem, called the luxurious inhabitants of Brussels "chicken-eaters"; the citizens of Ghent "hat-bearers"; the people of Lovain "cow-shooters," because they once fired upon a herd of cows, mistaking them for the enemy; and the citizens of Malines "moon-extinguishers," with reference to their action in saving their cathedral from supposed fire.

The history of the Belgians is thickly studded with episodes, each of which illustrates the bold, generous, freedom-loving spirit by which they were animated. The people are reasonably proud of their past. The bravery, intelligence, and energy by which they won distinction when the sword was the arbiter of fortune are strong as ever in the Belgians, but are now exercised under conditions widely different from those of the past. Once industrious, busy, and prosperous, their strong Allies will help them win back not only their soil but some reparation for their injuries and some recompense for their self-forgetful devotion.



# TALKS ABOUT CONTINENTS, OCEANS, AND ISLANDS

THE land surface of the earth is divided into six great divisions called continents. The continents of Europe, Asia, and Africa constitute the Old World. The two Americas, North and South, are generally called the New World, because they were only discovered by Columbus some four hundred years ago. The sixth continent is Australia, the "Great Southern Land," at the antipodes.

Though Europe is, with the exception of Australia, the smallest in size, it is in many respects the most important of the continents. Its chief inhabitants are highly civilized, and, it being mostly within the temperate zone, the people are not prevented from following their employment at all seasons of the year. The soil of Europe, though productive, calls forth the best energies of the people to make it yield the largest supplies. The coast-line is much indented, so that most parts are within easy reach of the sea, and trade is thereby greatly encouraged. The skill and industry of Europeans are well known, and some of the peoples of Europe hold and rule over immense tracts of land, not only in Asia and Africa, but also in America and Australia.

Asia is the largest of the continents. Its vast extent gives it immense variety of climate and productions, and there are great differences in its various races of inhabitants. Asia has been called the "cradle of the human race"; the Garden of Eden was supposed to have been situated in the once beautiful country lying between the rivers Euphrates and Tigris. Now Asia is sometimes called the "continent of ruined nations," for here flourished the great empires of Babylonia, Assyria, and Persia, but of the once mighty cities Babylon and Nineveh little remains but a heap of stones; Jerusalem is in the hands of the Turks; Persia has long been little more than a name, and only lately has shown signs of renewal; India, conquered, forms the "brightest jewel in the British crown"; while China, the oldest and most populous of the nations, has only been prevented from falling to pieces by the interested watchfulness of other countries.

From Asia have come the great religions of the world, including Christianity. Most of the European peoples claim descent from one ancient tribe, which is believed to have had its original home on some elevated region in Central Asia. This people spoke a language known as the Aryan, from which have sprung most of the great tongues of modern times.

Africa is a large and compact continent, distinguished from the others by an unbroken coast-line, with very few openings and inland seas. Within its borders are great deserts, and the want of navigable rivers has proved a great hindrance to its development. Though Africa contains Egypt, once numbered among the foremost nations of old, it quite deserved till lately to be called "the dark continent." It is now being gradually opened up by civilized nations.

America, in two parts joined by a narrow isthmus, and known as North and South America, stretches from the north pole almost to the Antarctic Ocean in the south, comprises all the land surface between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, and occupies what is known as the western hemisphere. The two parts are both very roughly triangular, the base in each case being at the north, and the apex at the south; but while South America possesses no true peninsulas, North America has many.

Australia, which is a British possession, may be regarded either as the smallest of the continents, or as the largest island in the world. Like Africa, it is compact in shape, poor in rivers, and partly occupied by deserts. Like America, it is comparatively a newly discovered land, upon which Europeans have settled, before whom the native races have nearly died out. Its animals and vegetation are different from those of other parts of the globe; in fact, so many of its productions present features which are not merely strange, but quite different to our experience, that Australia has been playfully called "Topsy-turvy-Land."

The continents, vast though they are, do not occupy more than one quarter of the earth's sur-

face. The remaining three quarters are covered by oceans, the name given to those huge expanses of salt water which separate the continents from each other. The Arctic and Antarctic oceans wash the north and south poles respectively. What lies on their farther shores we cannot say, for the foot of man has not yet trodden all the polar lands.

The Arctic Ocean is nearly circular in form, and round its southern waters are grouped the northern shores of Europe, Asia, and North America. The Antarctic Ocean, unlike the Arctic, is quite open. Somewhere round the south pole probably lies a great unknown continent, but no land is found where the Antarctic Ocean merges into the Atlantic, Pacific, and Indian oceans.

Of the latter three, the most important, though not the largest, is the Atlantic. It receives more rivers, and penetrates by inland seas, bays, and gulfs more into the fertile regions of the earth than any other ocean. As it lies between America and the western shores of Europe and Africa, all intercourse between the United States and the busiest European nations is carried on by its means.

If you were to sail to Asia from the western shores of our own country you would have to cross the Pacific Ocean. This vast stretch of water is twice as large as the Atlantic, and its waves also break on the shores of Australia in the far south.

The warm deep waters of the Indian Ocean surround the shores of the British Indian Empire. Its eastern part touches the Pacific, while its western waves wash the eastern side of Africa. The two main arms are the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf. At the head of the Red Sea the Suez Canal, opened in 1869, joins the Indian and Atlantic oceans.

All these great waters have two motions, tides and currents. Of tides the main cause is the moon, which draws the ocean with such force as to heap its waters up on that side of the earth which is the nearest to it. This, as the earth turns, causes a rise and fall of the water, or high and low tide, about twice in every twenty-four hours. Ocean currents are rivers in the sea, the beds and banks of which consist of other seawater. The chief causes which set them moving are the differences of temperature in different parts of the ocean, the action of winds, and the turning of the earth on its axis.

The Atlantic Ocean has many currents. Two of the chief are the arctic and the antarctic drift-currents, both called after the oceans out of

which they flow toward the equator. The antarctic, which is intensely cold, flows toward the Cape of Good Hope; the arctic meets the Gulf Stream off the coast of Newfoundland. The Gulf Stream is the outflow of water which, heated in the Gulf of Mexico in the hot torrid zone, flows northerly along the coast of the United States, past Newfoundland, then turns and spreads eastward, probably helping to give Great Britain, France, and Scandinavia warmer winters than they would have without it. As it goes northward, it widens, becomes shallower, and steadily loses heat.

The most important current in the Pacific Ocean is the great equatorial current, with its two parts, north and south. In this ocean we also find a cold Peruvian current and a Japanese current. The Indian Ocean also contains an equatorial current, a branch of which forms what is called the Mozambique current.

Land and ocean have this point of resemblance—the depths in the ocean correspond, it is believed, very nearly with the greatest mountain heights on dry land. You must not, however, expect to find the lands of the earth dotted over the ocean at equal distances from each other. On the contrary, the world may be divided into a land hemisphere and a water hemisphere. Of the former, London would be the center; of the latter, New Zealand.

## EUROPE

Europe lies in the middle of all the land in the world, being really a peninsula joined to Asia. It possesses a number of peninsulas, most of which point southward. Asia is five times the size of Europe, and Africa is three times as large. Between Africa and Europe is the Mediterranean Sea, the largest inland sea in the world. Europe is a continent with inland seas, which is an advantage to a trading people. Even the mountains of Europe are no hindrance to intercourse. They lie chiefly in the south, their main lines running east and west from the Caucasus to the Pyrenees. The Alps are the grandest mountain-system in Europe, many of the lofty peaks therein being covered with perpetual snow. The great plain of Europe, stretching from the Pyrenees to the Urals, and covering two thirds of the entire surface of the continent, is sometimes called Low Europe. It attains its greatest breadth in Russia.

Europe has many noble rivers. There are three river-systems, named according to the destination of their waters, the arctic, the Atlantic,



and the Caspian; the two greatest waterways are the Danube and the Rhine; the former is a great highway to the east for South Germany, Austria, Hungary, and the younger nations of its lower valley; the latter has long been one of the busiest and best highways for the commerce of Western Europe.

Europe has no great contrasts of heat and cold, all extremes being reduced by the sea-air which reaches to every part. The vegetation is abundant; all the forest trees, fruits, and useful grains which grow in the temperate zones being found in plenty, except in the most northern regions, where are found a few dwarf trees, some mosses and berries, a little barley and oats, but no fruit of any kind. Wild animals are steadily dying out, except perhaps the wolves in Russia. Among the other larger beasts, the wild boar and the brown bear are found in the German forests, in the Alps, and in the Pyrenees. The polar bear roams on the coast of the Arctic Ocean. Europe is rich in coal and the useful metals.

The people of Europe belong almost entirely to two races, the Caucasian and the Mongolian. The latter is represented by the Magyars of Hungary, the Turks, and the Finns. Of the Caucasian race there are four varieties: the Teutonic, or German family, to which belong the English, Dutch, and Scandinavians; the Celtic, among whom are the Irish, the Welsh, and the Highlanders of Scotland; the Romanic, or nations of the South; and the Slavonic peoples between the Adriatic and the Black Sea.

The languages of Europe belong to the Indo-European or Aryan family, with the exception of the Turkish and its kindred tongues. The religion of most of the people is Christian, but the Turks are Mohammedans, and Jews are to be found in all European countries.

Taking into consideration its size, no continent has more islands than Europe. The British Isles are the most important in the world. The six Great Powers of Europe are Great Britain, Germany, Russia, France, Austria, and Italy.

## ASIA

Asia, which contains one fourth of all the land of the globe, is a continent of table-lands. Elevated tracts surrounded by lofty ranges stretch over the continent, while in other parts there are plains and depressions below the sea-level. The central knot from which the great ranges extend is the Pamir plateau, often called the "roof of the world."

The Himalayas, stretching 1500 miles, and containing among their giant peaks Mount Everest,

with an altitude of 29,000 feet, are the most important range. To the north are the Kuen-Lun and Tian-Shan mountains, enclosing the dreary wastes of Tibet and the barren desert of Gobi. To the south, but running off in the opposite directions, are the Hindu Kush and Suliman mountains. Westward across Afghanistan and Persia extends the Iranian plateau, meeting the eastern extremity of the table-land of Asia Minor. Far away in the opposite direction to the north are the Altai and other ranges, and beyond these lies the great Siberian plain.

The three great rivers flowing through to the north, the Obi, Yenesei, and Lena, are ice-bound nearly all the year. The Amur, another great river, flows eastward into the Sea of Okhotsk, and separates Manchuria from Siberia. The Hoang-ho and the Yang-tse-Kiang, flowing in the same direction, make the Chinese lowlands the most fertile in the world. The basins of the Mekong, Salwin, and Irawadi, though in some parts marshy and unhealthy, are highly productive.

The three great Indian rivers, the Indus, Brahmaputra and Ganges, draw their waters from the snowy springs of the Himalayas. The Tigris and Euphrates, twin rivers that become united a hundred miles before reaching the Persian Gulf, rise in the mountains of Armenia, and enclose the extensive area known as Mesopotamia. Some of the rivers of the interior, as in Turkestan, never reach the sea, but get lost in great marshes, which are slowly drying up.

The Caspian Sea, the Sea of Aral, and the Dead Sea are all inland salt seas. Baikal is the largest of the fresh-water lakes of Asia, and has considerable traffic across it. A belt of land, which is almost rainless and waterless, includes the interior of Arabia, the Syrian desert, Mesopotamia, and the Persian desert; while in the distant north, in Mongolia, is the desert of Gobi, already mentioned.

Every variety of climate is to be found in so wide a region. The great plain of the north is open to the icy breezes of the Arctic Ocean; the great central plateau possesses what is known as a continental climate, in which extremes of heat and cold are strongly marked; while the southern and eastern portions are under the influence of a tropical sun, and the heavy rains which come with the wind called the monsoon.

The people of Asia mostly belong to one of two great races. To the Caucasian or white race belong the Hindus, Arabs, Jews, and Persians. To the Mongolian or yellow race belong the Mongols, or Tartars, the Tibetans, Chinese, and Japanese.

There is a third race, the Malay or brown race, inhabiting the East India Islands.

Nine hundred millions of people—more than half of the human race—live in Asia. China is the most densely populated country, while India and Japan are not far behind. In religion the majority are Buddhists, or followers of a great teacher named Buddha, who lived five hundred years before Christ. Many Mohammedans are found in India and Arabia. A large number of Hindus are Brahmans, a sacred caste, so named from Brahma, who, according to their belief, created the world.

### AFRICA

Africa has been entirely surrounded by water since the construction of that useful artificial waterway, the Suez Canal, which shortens the journey from the Western world to the countries of the East. Around the coast of this very compact continent but few islands are to be found; of these Madagascar is by far the largest.

The mountains of Africa are distributed in scattered groups, the most noteworthy of which is the Atlas range in the northwest. The Red Sea coast is flanked by a series of rugged heights, and on the west are to be found the Kong and the Kamerun Mountains. On the eastern side, the Lokinga Mountains form a watershed between the sources of the Congo and the Zambesi, while the lofty snow-clad peaks of Kenia and Kilimanjaro may be noted in the group anciently known as the Mountains of the Moon. The Drakensberg and Nieuwveld ranges run across the southern extremity of the continent.

The great feature of the surface of Africa is the immense desert known as the Sahara, which occupies a quarter of the whole area of the continent. The arid character of this vast expanse is sometimes relieved, particularly in the eastern half, by the presence of green patches known as oases, which owe their fertility to unfailing wells. To the south of the Sahara, lies a belt of pastoral country called the Soudan.

In the southern portion of the continent is a series of table-lands, flanked by ranges of mountains running round the coast. In the vast hollows of this elevated region numerous rivers feed great lakes. From the heights issue three of the largest rivers, the Nile, the Congo, and the Zambesi; and other rivers which never reach the sea, one losing its waters in the sands of the Kalahari Desert, and another emptying into Lake Chad.

In recent years there has been almost a scramble among European nations for slices of African

territory. All of them, bent on expanding their trade, have acquired "colonies" and "spheres of influence." The French claim influence over the greater part of the Niger basin, the southern regions of the Sahara, and the Western Soudan, but their chief possession is Algeria in the north; they also administer territory in the northwest of the Congo basin, and hold Madagascar by military occupation. The Congo Free State is practically under Belgian influence. The Portuguese, the pioneers of modern African exploration, retain only remnants of what they once held; these are districts lying south of the Congo basin, and a strip of territory extending along the Mozambique Channel. Germany is established in parts of Guinea, and on both the eastern and western shores of South Africa. The Spaniards content themselves with the "protection" of small districts in the northwest, and Italy claims a bit of Somaliland in the extreme east.

Foremost as an African power stands Great Britain. It controls Egypt and the upper reaches of the Nile, including Uganda and the lake called Victoria Nyanza; it also governs nearly all South Africa south of the Zambesi, and holds smaller points of vantage in various other parts of the continent.

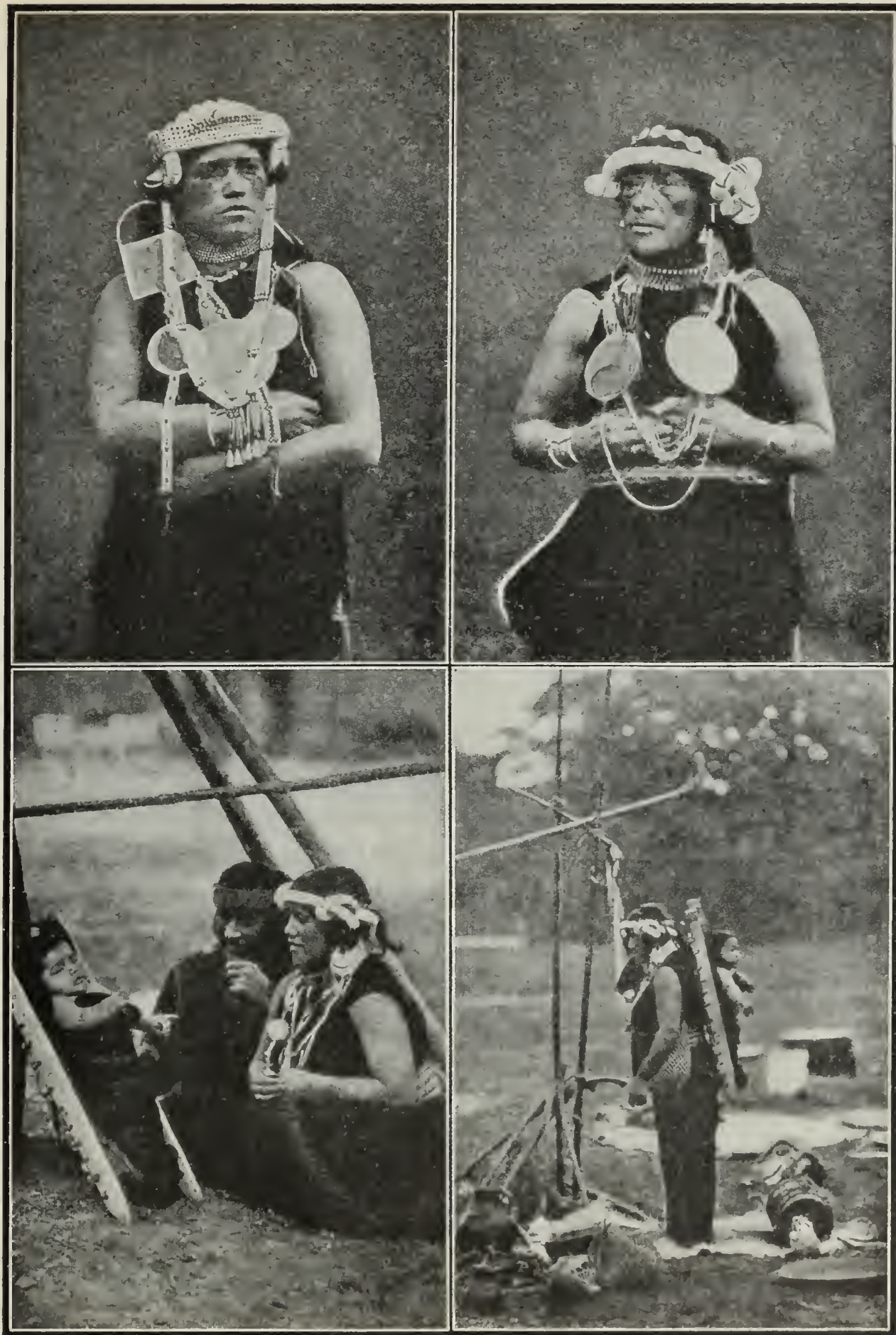
### AMERICA

The continent of America occupies what is known as the western hemisphere, and practically comprises all the land surface of the world lying between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. This vast continent stretches from the north pole very nearly to the antarctic circle in the south. It is, however, divided by a central sea into two well-defined parts, which are joined only by a narrow isthmus on the western shores of this sea. It is usual, therefore, to regard it as two continents, which are termed respectively North and South America.

These two continents are somewhat similar in shape, both being roughly triangular, the base in each being at the north and the apex at the south. Both have a long range of volcanic mountains stretching from north to south down their western coasts; both have a lower range of mountains on their eastern sides. The great rivers too are very similar in their direction; the St. Lawrence, in North America, and the Amazon, in South America, draining the central plains in an easterly direction; while the Mississippi in North America, and the Plata in the southern continent, have both a southerly course.

The two Americas exhibit, however, certain points of contrast. In North America, the great





ARAUCANIANS, CHILE.



range of the Rocky Mountains runs at a considerable distance from the coast, and consequently, there are several rivers of considerable size flowing into the Pacific Ocean. In South America, on the other hand, the Andes, throughout their entire course, lie close to the western coast, and in consequence, there are no rivers on their western slopes; all the rivers of the southern continent fall into the Atlantic Ocean. An almost continuous chain of lakes stretches through the northern continent from the mouth of the Mackenzie river to the mouth of the St. Lawrence, and there is no part of the world that contains lakes so numerous and so large as those of North America. In South America there is almost an entire absence of lakes.

The natives of America, when first seen by Columbus, painted their olive or deep-brown faces with a red earth; hence he described them as red Indians, a name which soon spread to the whole of the native people of America, North and South. They had straight black hair, deep-sunken black eyes, high cheek-bones, and coarse features. They stained their faces in stripes and spots of red and blue and yellow, and wore eagles' feathers about their clothing. Their chief occupation, in North America, was hunting the bison, or buffalo, and they rarely lived long in one place. Their house, or wigwam, was a tent made of buffalo-skins stretched on a framework of light poles. A fire was made in the center, and the smoke found its way out through a hole in the roof. A few skins served them for bedding, and they had wooden vessels for household use.

When they found that the white man meant to settle in their land, they made fierce war against him. But they were gradually driven westward, and their numbers were rapidly diminished by wars and famine. Compared with their former numbers they are now few, and they have lost all their natural wildness and vigor.

The large numbers of negroes in our own country and other parts of America are to be traced to the slave-trade, which has now ceased to exist. These negroes are especially useful on the cotton, coffee, and sugar plantations. They are also employed as domestic servants, and make excellent porters in large cities. Much has been done in recent years to educate the negroes in the United States where they were formerly held in slavery, and they are making progress in many ways.

Of the animals found in North America, the bison, commonly called buffalo, is perhaps the best known. Till within recent years, it roamed

over the prairies in great numbers, sometimes in herds of as many as ten thousand. Three species of bear are found—the polar, the grizzly, and the black. The grizzly bear is the most dreaded of the wild animals of America. It frequently grows to a length of nine feet, and its head is very large. It has long, sharp claws, and its fur is dark brown, but mixed with gray, which gives it the grizzly appearance from which it derives its name. It is powerful enough to carry away the carcass of a buffalo.

The caribou, or reindeer, is found wild in the northern parts of North America, and is hunted for the sake of its flesh and hide. In certain respects it differs from other species of the deer tribe. It has a peculiarity in the hoof which aids it in running swiftly over the snow-covered ground, and both the male and female caribou possess antlers.

Among the other animals found are beavers, seals, racoons, otters, sables, squirrels, and hares, all of which are hunted or trapped for their furs. In various parts of North and South America the puma is common; and the lynx is at home in northern forests. The only American animal of the pouch-bearing kind is the opossum. Many kinds of birds are natives of North and South America—so many kinds that we think it best not to try to name even the more common species, but to advise you to learn about them both in books of natural history and by observation in your own neighborhood, if you live in the country or near some large park.

## AUSTRALASIA

Australia is the name given to the great island-continent of the south, and it means the "Southland." When we think of Tasmania, New Zealand, New Guinea, and the numerous islands in connection with it, we use the term "Australasia," or the "Southland of Asia." But none of these islands is closely related to Australia with the exception of Tasmania, which now forms one of the six states of the Commonwealth.

The continent of Australia is about the size of the United States and more than three fourths as large as the whole of Europe. It is very compact, being in shape a great irregular oval, with an almost unbroken coast-line. There are really only two large openings, the Gulf of Carpentaria in the north and Spencer Gulf in the south. This sameness is also to be observed in the other physical features of the continent. The mountains never rise to a very great height, the loftiest



peak, Mount Kosciuszko, in the Australian Alps, being about 7300 feet high. They do not, like those of Asia and America, form a sort of backbone. The Great Dividing Range, the only important mountain-system, runs along the east coast from north to south under various names. The western mountains, the chief being the Darling Range, are also more or less parallel with the coast.

The mountains running coastwise, as in Africa, it might be supposed that the interior of Australia is a lofty table-land; it may be more correctly described, however, as a vast plateau, for its elevation is low. West of the Blue Mountains, a succession of terraces descends rapidly to a level of about 600 feet above the sea. Here and there a peak of moderate height rises from the plain and breaks the monotony of the land. A large part of the interior, particularly in the west, consists of sandy and stony deserts, covered with spinifex, a prickly grass, on which the cattle and sheep feed in times of drought, as it is always green. The line of the horizon on these vast plains is as unbroken as it is over the sea; and they are so flat that the detached ranges and solitary mountains which rise out of them appear like islands surrounded by an unbroken ocean.

As the dividing ranges are so near the eastern and western coasts of Australia, no very long rivers are found running directly east and west, and there is nothing remarkable about the streams, except that some of them, notwithstanding their short courses, enter the sea by noble bays. They are of little use commercially, as they often flow through deep, narrow ravines.

Immediately to the west of the Blue Mountains, and in the very highest terraces and table-lands, a host of full and powerful mountain streams combine to form a large river, the Lachlan. Considerably farther south, the Murrumbidgee and the Murray rise in the Australian Alps. These rivers all unite, and are afterward joined by the Darling and other streams; but the mouth by which they enter the sea is so small that it was overlooked by the early explorers of the coast. Lake Alexandrina, into which these united streams flow, on their way to Encounter Bay, is too shallow in places to float even a boat. Many of the rivers of the interior are mountain torrents at one time and dry and dusty chasms at another. When the mountains are well supplied with water, the beds of the streams are fully charged, and then they foam and thunder along their upper courses till they reach the flats. Here they expand and spread to the right and left in marshes. In dry seasons, on the contrary, these

rivers dwindle into trifling brooks, even in the mountains, while, in the plains, their wide and shallow beds present no more than a succession of pools.

As might be inferred from the level nature of the country, lakes are numerous in Australia; but none of them are very large, and few appear to be permanent. Lakes Eyre, Gairdner, and Torrens are really salt marshes. Lake Torrens has been followed, at times, in one continuous narrow sheet for 400 miles, and has been afterward found broken up into a multitude of pools.

The greater part of Australia is situated in the south temperate zone, and the climate of this portion is similar to that of Southern Europe, except that it is drier, notwithstanding the abundance of rain which falls on the eastern coast. Of course, the seasons occur at opposite times of the year to ours. Thus, their spring months are September, October, and November. Their Christmas falls in the first month of their summer, and their winter takes place when we enjoy our summer weather.

The curse of the Australian climate is drought. It occasionally happens that no rain falls in some stations for twelve months at a stretch. Then the mortality among the sheep and cattle is frightful, the water-holes being nearly all dried up and filled with their dead bodies. Happily such cases as these do not often occur, and when they do they are confined to limited areas. The dews are very copious, and fall heaviest during the summer heat and long-continued droughts to some extent relieving the dryness. Great care is now taken of the water: it is stored up in huge tanks, or artificial lakes, and irrigation colonies have been established.

## NEW ZEALAND

About 1200 miles of the Pacific Ocean ebb and flow between Australia and New Zealand, the "Britain of the South."

This archipelago somewhat resembles the British Isles, for it consists of two main islands, with a number of smaller islets scattered round them, and it occupies a somewhat similar position in the southern hemisphere to that filled by the British Isles in the northern. In area, climate and productions the two groups are also much alike.

The two principal islands of New Zealand, called from their position North Island and South Island, are separated from each other by a narrow channel, known as Cook Strait. They were explored by Captain Cook, and from his time

the coasts were occasionally visited by whaling ships; but no settlement appears to have been made until about 1815, when a missionary station was set up in North Island. For some time the islands were governed from New South Wales, but in 1841 they were made a separate colony.

Like many of the South Sea Islands, New Zealand is of volcanic origin. A chain of lofty mountains, called the Southern Alps, occupies the center of South Island through its whole length, and a similar range extends through more than half the length of North Island. On both sides these mountains slope gradually toward the sea, leaving a large extent of shelving forest, plain, and marsh-land. There are also some detached outlying mountains of great height. A few of the mountains are barren or clothed with ferns, but by far the greater number are covered, up to the range of perpetual snow, by magnificent timber-trees. There are some active volcanoes; and in North Island are various cavities which appear to be extinct craters. Near these are numerous hot springs, some of which are used by the natives for cooking, for the water in them boils.

Mount Egmont, an extinct volcano in the southwest part of North Island, and near the northern entrance to Cook Strait, is about 8000 feet high. In 1886 a terrible volcanic eruption broke out in what is known as the Hot Lake District of North Island. Soon after midnight on June 10th, loud explosions were heard and heavy earthquakes felt. These were followed by an outbreak of Mount Tarawera. Ashes, dust, and red hot stones were hurled by the mountain to an immense height, and some of the ashes traveled nearly fifty miles. Soon afterward, an outburst took place at Lake Rotomahana, the water of the lake and its clay bed, with the material of the Pink and White Terraces, being suddenly blown into the air as a vast mud-cloud, which in its descent covered the country around to various depths, burying two native villages and thrusting a third bodily into Lake Tarawera, by which it was completely swallowed up. Although the eruption only lasted a few hours, it changed the entire aspect of the land for miles.

The whole country is very well watered, for a great number of streams, affording an unlimited command of water-power, descend from the central chain on each side. The Waikato and others are of considerable size and length. There are also numerous lakes, the largest of which, Taupo, in North Island, is of unknown depth.

The climate of New Zealand is very temperate. The country is free from the oppressive heat

which prevails at midday in parts of Australia, and it is not subject to the severe droughts that afflict the island continent.

As most of the native plants are evergreen, the country always presents a verdant appearance; and the soil, which in most of the valleys is a deep loam, or fertile vegetable mold, is well adapted to the growth of nearly all the useful plants of Europe. Grain of all kinds, fruits, and vegetables grow well; and potatoes, introduced by Captain Cook, now form the chief food of the natives. The trees, chiefly of the pine family, sometimes attain a very large size.

It is remarkable that when New Zealand was first discovered it had no native mammals. Horses, cattle, sheep, and other useful animals have all been imported. Even the dog and the rat were introduced by Europeans. A good many parrots, wild ducks, and pigeons inhabit the forests; and poultry, which have been introduced, thrive well. Indeed, if we except their prisoners of war—for the primitive inhabitants were cannibals—almost the only animal food eaten by the people prior to the settlement of the English, was the fish which abounded round the coasts.

The soil and climate are suited for the raising of cattle, sheep, and other useful animals. Pigs were introduced by Captain Cook, and owing to the great abundance of fern-roots, their favorite food, they multiplied greatly. The natives allowed them to run wild, and used to catch them by means of dogs.

The most singular of all birds is the apteryx of New Zealand; it has neither wings nor tail. Upon its very long and slender beak it sometimes leans in walking, using it as an old man would use a cane. It is a bird of night, feeding on worms, and procuring its prey on the ground by smell rather than by sight. But this curious creature is becoming quite rare, and is now preserved under government regulations.

The natives of New Zealand, who are called Maories, are believed to have arrived in North Island as immigrants, in the fifteenth century. They are a fine race; the men, in general, are tall, many reaching a height of six feet. They are strong, active, almost all well shaped. The women are often handsome.

The Maories resemble European gypsies in their color, which varies from a dark chestnut to the light tinge of an Italian. Their eyes, though deeply sunk, are full of vivacity; and the teeth, which are white, even, and regular, last to old age. When first discovered, the natives made mats and other articles of great beauty out of the New Zealand hemp fiber. They also built canoes,



and carved them with skill. They make excellent seamen.

These people have quite a collection of poems in their own language; and they are very fond of music. There is not a tree, a weed, a fish, or a bird in North Island for which the Maories have not a name. When Captain Cook visited New Zealand they numbered about 90,000, nine tenths of whom dwelt in North Island. At present there are about 40,000 residing in the reserves granted them by the colonists.

If we except the Maories, over 90 per cent. of the present population of New Zealand are British-born subjects; but the people altogether only number (1912) a little over 1,000,000, so there is plenty of room for many more immigrants in the "Britain of the South."

New Zealand is mainly a sheep-raising country, and wool and frozen mutton are the chief exports. The wool is of good quality, and the fleeces are heavier than those of Australia. Dairy-farming is also an important industry, cheese and butter being sent to the English markets. The production of wheat, oats, and fruit, and the mining of gold, silver, and coal give employment to a large number of people. Timber is very plentiful and has become an important article of export. The kauri pine is well known as a valuable timber-tree. When a tree of this species is cut down, a kind of resin, which hardens in the air, oozes from the stump; this is collected, and becomes an article of commerce. One of the chief products of the country is hemp obtained from the leaves—not the stem—of a native plant found in the marshes.

## FIJI AND THE ISLANDS OF THE PACIFIC

Leaving New Zealand, a voyage to the north of about 850 miles brings us to the port of Levuka, the capital of the Fiji Islands, the residence of the white population, and principal commercial town. The Fijis consist of a group of islands about 220 in number, many of which are uninhabited. They were first seen by Tasman in 1643, and were annexed to the British Empire in 1874.

The island of Ovalau, although by no means the largest of the group, is the most important, and its climate is healthy. Levuka has a good and well-sheltered harbor, and the situation for a commercial port could not be better selected. The town lies in a quiet and peaceful valley, surrounded by dense groves of cocoanut and bread-fruit trees, with a stream of water running down to the beach. In the background volcanic peaks

rise many hundred feet above the level of the sea, and are covered with beautiful bright foliage and plantations, which make up a most picturesque view.

Cotton, coffee, sugar-cane, arrowroot, nutmegs, and bananas may be seen here growing in perfection; and the tea-plant is also being cultivated with success. The fruits are delicious. Oranges, melons, citrons, and many others grow plentifully.

The country is very mountainous, and has some splendid scenery. The walk by the shore is highly picturesque. On one hand is the Pacific Ocean, its surf rolling in with angry fury upon the silver sands; on the other, the densely crowded woods, with their heavy foliage and groves of banana, cocoanut, and other trees, where the deep silence is only broken by the notes of the birds of gorgeous plumage, whose songs add to the charm of the scene.

The islanders are physically a fine race. They have a great taste for war, which, before these islands fell into the hands of England, appeared to be their chief study, and was considered the most honorable occupation. The victorious party generally sacrificed some of their captives to their gods, and the remainder furnished food for one of their horrible cannibal feasts. The old people were not permitted to live beyond a certain age. When their allotted time arrived they were either buried alive or strangled by their own children. This was looked upon as a duty, not only by the children, but by the victims themselves, the idea being that they would retain, after death, the same condition of bodily health as at the time of their decease.

Disease and bodily infirmity were much dreaded, and voluntary death considered far more desirable. Deformed children and persons crippled by accident were usually killed. When a chief died it was the custom to follow up the event by the sacrifice of all his wives and slaves. Both sexes covered their bodies with red and black pigments. These horrible and superstitious practices have died out since the islands have come under civilized rule.

The southern part of New Guinea, the large island to the north of Australia, also belongs to Great Britain, the remainder of it being divided between Holland and Germany. Its surface is covered with palms and timber of great size. The woods abound with hogs, which the natives kill with spears and arrows, in the use of which they are very expert. Cocoanuts, bread-fruit, pineapples, and the plantain grow wild in the island.





# QUEER HOUSES OF OCEANIA.

1. A GRASS DWELLING, FIJI ISLANDS.
2. DOBO, OR TREE-HOUSE, NEW GUINEA.



The Papuans, as the natives of New Guinea are called, continue for the most part in their original state of barbarism, being nearly devoid of clothing, and living on the products of the chase and the wild fruits of the forest. Their huts are often raised on posts; a wide common hall fills the center of the building; the cabins on each side are occupied by several families, and miserably furnished with a mat or two, a fire-place, and an earthen pot. Cooking goes on in each cabin, and as there is no chimney, the smoke issues from every part of the roof. At a distance, the whole building seems to be on fire.

The remaining islands of the vast Pacific may be briefly noted. Between New Guinea and Fiji are two groups—the Solomon Islands, belonging partly to Great Britain, and partly to Germany, and the New Hebrides, under the joint protection

of Great Britain and France. New Caledonia lies farther south; it belongs to France, and is used as a convict station. Another French group embraces the Society Islands, the largest of which is Tahiti, the “garden of the Pacific.” The Tonga and the Cook Islands are British; the natives are intelligent and civilized. The Samoan Islands are divided between the United States and Germany. To the United States also belong the Hawaiian Islands, where the famous Captain Cook was murdered. There are some very active volcanoes in these islands.

The capital of Hawaii is Honolulu, a pleasant town with many fine streets and public buildings. Its busy harbor is always full of steamers trading with the three continents of America, Asia, and Australia. Honolulu has all the improvements of a modern city.



# THE GREAT WAR

A SKETCH OF THE STRUGGLE TO MAKE THE WORLD SAFE FOR DEMOCRACY\*

Two young American boys were traveling through England on their bicycles in the summer of 1914. Coming up to London out of the tranquil Shakespeare country they found that they had saved enough money by their economy so as to afford to add the trip through Holland to their journey, which they had expected to close with a hasty visit to Paris and departure from Havre. Two days after their tickets to Rotterdam were secured the boat stopped running as suddenly as—this. The European War had started. It was four years before one of them ever reached Paris. He did so as a young officer in the American Expeditionary Forces. This incident from two personal lives illustrates how suddenly the greatest event in history broke upon the attention of men.

To-day those who are wiser than we point out that we ought to have foreseen the event before it happened. In 1914 it seems as if the whole world intended peace. But we had forgotten about Germany.

## GERMANY'S SELF-CONCEIT

Germany is the youngest of the great nations. She was made into a nation out of separate tribes as the result of the war with France which was provoked by the folly of Napoleon the Little. Not only had the Franco-Prussian war made her an empire but it had tremendously increased her territory, and the indemnity of three billion dollars that she demanded from France had helped to make her rich. Germany had become one of the busiest, best organized, and most prosperous nations in the world.

As Germany grew great she also became proud. Her success caused her to believe in the superiority of German efficiency. She began to

think that her way of doing things, to which she gave the name "Kultur," was the best under the heaven. She began to think it a good thing if the rest of the world could grow to admire this "Kultur" and be governed by it. One of her poets wrote a line which became a favorite throughout the empire: "German Kultur shall bring healing to the nations."

Germany was becoming both the factory and the school-house of the world. Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Belgium, and Switzerland were being drawn within the circle of Berlin influence. The same was even true of Austria, Italy, and to a great extent of Russia. It would seem that if Germany would only remain kind and fair and make it clear that her business relations were not an excuse for political schemes her empire would have advanced from glory to glory. One historian predicts that by 1940, through peaceful growth, Germany would have reached a position of such wealth and influence that all the lesser nations of northern Europe would have been drawn into her federal system.

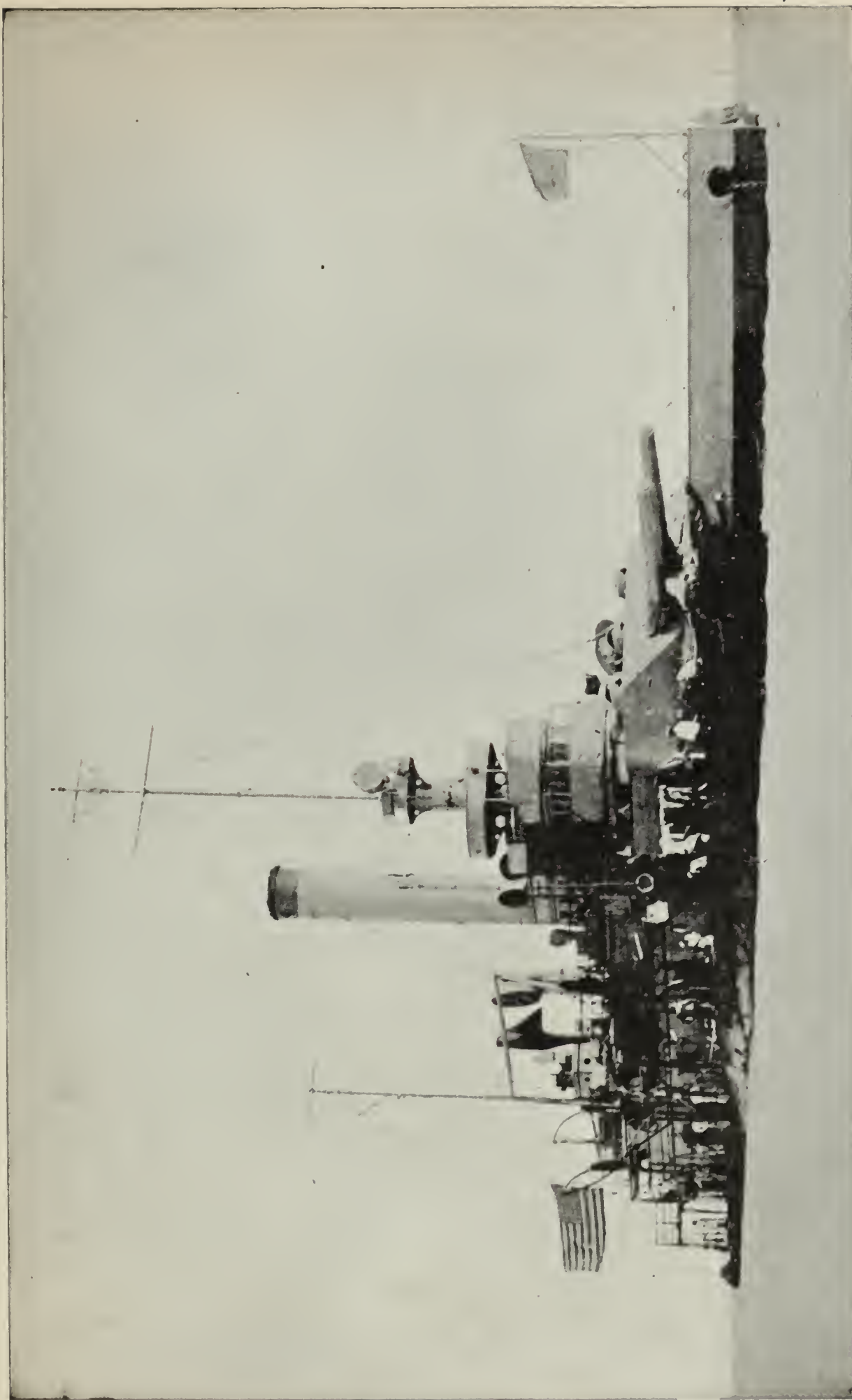
## THE POLICY OF THE JUNKERS

But this was not enough. There was a class in Germany, the military nobility, whom we now know as the Junkers, who maintained the barbarous idea that the only way to extend dominion was by the sword. They wanted to try the same fiery, bloody way that had been tried by Assyria, Persia, Rome, Arabia, Spain, and by Napoleon. They believed that war is the noblest profession; that the people should carry bayonets and not ballots, and that their army was unconquerable.

They were fond of quoting the motto of their founder, Frederick the Great, who used to say, "I take first; I shall always find pedants enough to explain afterwards." They remembered that Bismarck used to say: "When Prussian power is in question I know no law." They read

\*This article is based on the "Study of the Great War," by Samuel B. Harding, issued by the Committee on Public Information.





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MOTHER SUBMARINE AND HER CHILDREN

The mother-ship of submarines with submarines lying alongside

eagerly the writings of their strange philosopher, Nietzsche, who declared that "Life is essentially appropriation, injury, conquest." One of their young peoples' magazines taught the boys of Germany that "War is the noblest and holiest expression of human activity; war is beautiful; it is the heaven of young Germany." The young crown prince won the enthusiasm of this party when he sounded forth their view by writing: "It is only by relying on our good German sword that we can hope to conquer that place in the sun which rightly belongs to us."

### GERMANY PLANNED THIS WAR

For a number of years, as we now see clearly, Germany was getting ready for war. She began to lay down a tremendous navy in 1898, which she feverishly increased as soon as Great Britain became weakened by the Boer War. She had developed the enforced military training of her young men to such a point that it alarmed the rest of Europe and turned that continent into an armed camp. During the three years before the war broke, she nearly doubled her standing army, prepared enormous stocks of munitions, levied an exceptional war tax and built railways leading to the Belgium, French, and Russian frontiers, which could have no other purpose than a military one.

She worked out a plan to throw a broad belt of German military power across the center of Europe into the heart of Asia—a belt of which Austria, Serbia, and Turkey were to be forced to become a part. The pathway of this belt was the Bagdad railway.

She had made up her mind that Great Britain was decrepit and that France was weak. She thought she could conquer England and force France to become a nation of workingmen, thrifty for her sake. A common toast among young German officers at dinner was, "*Der Tag*"—a toast to the day when war with Great Britain should come.

Of course, all the discontent in the world was not in Germany. There was the old hate between France and Germany because Alsace-Lorraine had been snatched away. There was the longer hate between Great Britain and Germany, caused partly by rivalry in business and much more because the Germans were jealous of the British colonial empire, and because a great military nation could not be friendly with a great liberal one. Then there was the desire of Italy to reclaim its lands held by Austria; the perpetual squabble about the Balkan question; the

problem of disposing of the Turkish empire in Europe, and the fever of Russia, Germany, and Austria to control the Dardanelles.

### THE WAR WAS INTENDED FOR 1914

Still, in 1914 the surface looked peaceful. The diplomats of Europe had been talking at The Hague about a league for universal peace. England had been making concessions to Germany in the matter of the Bagdad railway which exceeded all expectations, and war seemed so extravagant, so monstrous, so foolish that almost nobody this side of the water believed it possible that any wise modern nation would ever turn to arms again.

We now know that the conflict was planned for a particular time. Germany, as we have seen, had increased her army enormously. The year before the war she tripled the special war fund for mobilizing her soldiers. She had just finished the Kiel Canal connecting the Baltic and North seas. She had stirred up revolt in the British Empire in South Africa and British India. She felt that these troubles, labor difficulties, and the unrest of Ireland would make England almost helpless. She knew that England had a very small standing army.

It looked at the time as if the assassination of the crown prince of Austria in the Austrian province of Bosnia by some Serbian revolutionists was the torch that started the flame. Bosnia had been illegally annexed to Austria from Serbia six years before. The Italian minister of foreign affairs nearly a year before had been told by Austria that she intended to attack Serbia very soon. We cannot of course prove that the assassination was actually planned either by Austria or Germany, but we do know that war was intended. The French ambassador at Berlin had written a letter the previous winter in which he stated that, "William the Second has come to think that war with France is inevitable." "A struggle is close at hand for the German people," stated a resolution of the Pan-German League, the spring before the war broke out.

When Austria called Serbia to account for the assassination Serbia made the most fair and humble acknowledgments. She accepted all of the Austrian demands but two, and suggested that these, which were insulting, should be referred to The Hague Tribunal. Professor Hans Delbrück, a noted professor and statesman of Germany, himself acknowledged that "Austria demanded conditions which would have placed Serbia under her permanent control."





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ONE OF THE WONDERS OF THE GREAT WAR—A CATERPILLAR TANK

Fundamentally it is built like a farm tractor, but it is equipped with armor-plate and field guns

## GERMANY EXPECTED IMMEDIATE VICTORY

War was declared by Austria against Serbia July 28, 1914. But already, in May, the German war department had made tremendous purchases of beds and hospital supplies. In June, all owners of factories were told to open the mobilization envelopes that were already in their possession. In May and June the reservists were recalled from South America. In May, exceptionally grand manœuvres were ordered which assembled in Cologne, Baden, and Alsace-Lorraine in the month of August. In June special coaling arrangements had been made for German naval vessels. The German ambassador at Constantinople told Henry Morgenthau that a conference had been held in Berlin on the 5th of July which was presided over by the kaiser at which the leading military men and business men of Germany were present, when the date of the war was fixed. Each was asked if he were ready. All said, yes, except the financiers, who insisted that they must have two weeks in which to sell foreign securities and arrange their loans.

This was Germany's plan. She would strengthen her ally Austria and so increase her own power. She would humiliate Russia, the great Slavic nation that had agreed to protect the smaller Slavic country, Serbia. With the coöperation of Austria and Turkey and the full conquest of Serbia, she would break open the route from Berlin to Bagdad. She would fall upon France suddenly, before she was prepared; frighten Great Britain into remaining neutral, and then turn and crush Russia.

## HOW THE WORLD TRIED TO REMAIN AT PEACE

We need not go into detail as to the strenuous efforts that were made by the diplomats of the European countries to ward off the conflict. England led in efforts for peace. A proposal was made for an informal conference of all the nations concerned, which was accepted by Russia, France, and Italy, but declined by Germany without consulting Austria. The czar proposed in a personal telegram to the kaiser to give over the Austria-Serbian problem to The Hague Tribunal and although his army was mobilized (because Germany had already mobilized hers), agreed to make no movement until the great powers had had time to study the question. Perhaps the most striking testimony against Germany is that of Prince Lichnowsky, the German ambassador to Great Britain, who declared that,

"It would have been easy to find an acceptable solution for the two relatively small points left in dispute, and, given good will, everything could have been settled in one or two sittings."

On July 28, Austria declared war against Serbia. On July 31, Germany made impossible demands upon Russia and France which were practically declarations of war. Already German bands of soldiers had repeatedly crossed the French frontier.

## THE MARTYRDOM OF BELGIUM BEGINS

In order to overwhelm France by surprise, Germany determined to use Belgium as her pathway. Belgium had been made an independent and perpetually neutral state by the action of all the great powers of Europe in 1839. Germany herself had confirmed this treaty in 1870 and the German minister of war had reassured Belgium only three years before, in the German Reichstag, that her neutrality would be observed. Germany now demanded permission to pass through Belgium on the way to France. Should Belgium oppose the German troops, said she, she would be "considered an enemy." Then came one of the heroic moments of history. The very next day Belgium refused such permission. "The Belgian government, if they were to accept the proposal submitted to them, would sacrifice the honor of the nation and betray their duty toward Europe."

The only plea was necessity. Said the German Chancellor, "We are now in a state of necessity, and necessity knows no law. If this is a breach of international law, the wrong—I speak openly—the wrong we commit we will try to make good as soon as our military aims have been attained."

When Great Britain, as Belgium's protector, demanded that this outrage should not proceed, the Chancellor told the British Ambassador that it did not seem to him necessary that Great Britain should cease to be neutral, "just for a word—neutrality, a word which in war-time has so often been disregarded—just for a scrap of paper."

But this was not Great Britain's idea of honor. She would not desert Belgium, and she would not permit France to undergo unaided this unprovoked attack.

"We shall never sheathe the sword which we have not lightly drawn," said her Prime Minister, "until Belgium recovers in full measure all and more than all that she has sacrificed,





PETER I, KING OF SERBIA

until France is adequately secured against the menace of aggression, until the rights of the smaller nationalities of Europe are placed upon an unassailable foundation, and until the military domination of Prussia is wholly and finally destroyed."

### OUTRAGES ON AN INNOCENT PEOPLE

A bully expects to win by frightening his opponent. This was the method that Germany used when invading peaceful Belgium. Houses and whole villages were burned. Homes were looted and wanton destruction of property was ordered by German officers. Citizens were murdered, women abused, and children brutally slain. Thousands of persons were killed, often with mutilation and torture. These outrages all occurred during the first three months and they were so similar that there is abundant evidence to show that they were planned and ordered in advance by German commanders.

"Over all this area," reported our minister to Belgium to our Secretary of State, "a rich agricultural region dotted with innumerable towns, villages, and hamlets, a land of contented peace and plenty, during all that month of August there were inflicted on the civilian population by the hordes that over-ran it deeds of such ruthless cruelty and unspeakable outrage that one must search history in vain for others like them committed on such a prodigious scale. Towns were sacked and burned, homes were pillaged; in many places portions of the population, men, women, and children, were massed in public squares and mowed down by *mitrailleuses*, and there were countless individual instances of an amazing and shameless brutality."

### FURTHER VIOLATION OF THE LAWS OF WAR

A German soldier fell off his bicycle and his gun went off; he declared he had been shot at, and all the inhabitants of the village were burned to death in their homes. Feeble old Belgian priests were forced to walk in front of the marching German armies as screens, so that if the Belgians fired they might kill the priests first. Babies were stabbed with bayonets. Belgians were carried off into Germany and forced to work for the German armies. There is a picture by a Dutch artist of a poor old Belgian making a shell; the dreadful expression in his face tells us he is thinking, "Perhaps this will kill my son." German seamen from a submarine

got into the lifeboat of a ship sunk far from land, emptied the fresh-water casks, filled them with salt-water, and even threw overboard the crew's little packages, done up in bandanna handkerchiefs, of little personal belongings which the poor fellows wanted to save. The crew of another ship which was torpedoed were put on the deck of the submarine, which then dived and left them to drown. Whole books have been written about these horrors, against all law and humanity, and yet half of them have not been recorded.

Although by international law a country may not be robbed even when it is an enemy, yet the Germans took away from Belgium coal, minerals and metals, wood and wool, and cotton and leather, machinery and tools, transport materials, and harvests. They also laid excessive taxes and fines upon the people. They robbed Belgium of more than a billion dollars, or many times as much as all the world has contributed since then to keep the Belgian people from starving to death.

They forcibly carried away tens of thousands of Belgian people, the men to serve practically as slaves in Germany, and the women reduced frequently to worse than slavery. "This deed," says our own minister, Brand Whitlock, who was in Belgium from the beginning, "was coldly planned, studiously matured, and deliberately and systematically executed, a deed so cruel that German soldiers are said to have wept in its execution, and so monstrous that even German soldiers are now said to be ashamed."

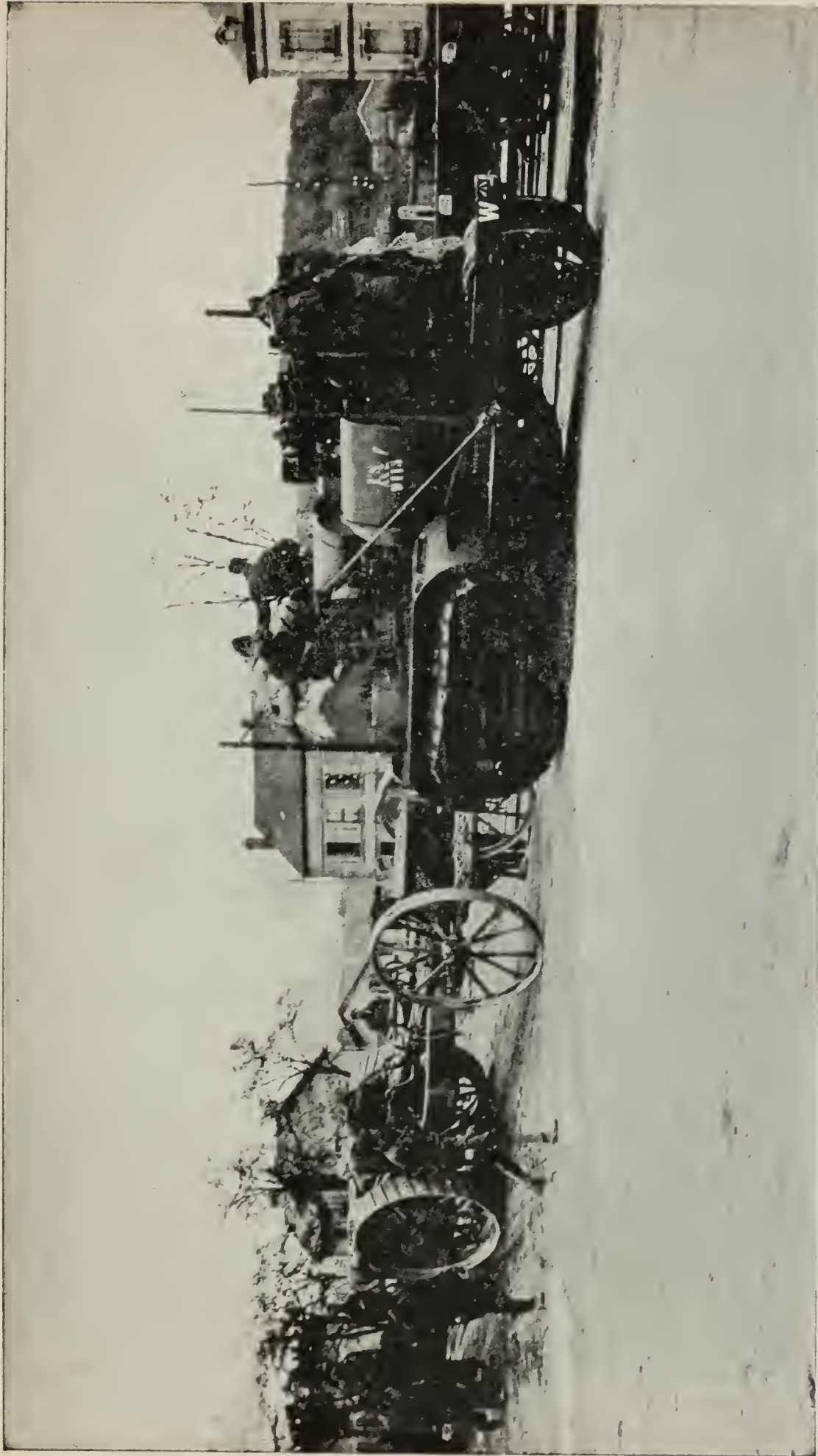
As the Germans pressed on into eastern France they over-ran great stretches of French territory in the same way. A Berlin newspaper says: "No village or farm was left standing; no road was left passable; no railway track was left in being. Where once were woods there are gaunt rows of stumps; the wells have been blown up, cables and pipe-lines destroyed; in front of our new position runs like a gigantic river an empire of death."

Both in Belgium and France there was the wanton destruction of some of the most beautiful and historic works of art. The library of Louvain, the cathedrals of Rheims, Soissons, Ypres, and Arras; the castle of Coucy, the town halls of Ypres and other Belgian cities.

### CRUELTY TO THE SICK AND HELPLESS

The same thing was done in Poland. The object was to bring about a famine so as to compel the male population to emigrate to Germany. "One-third of the generation, the young-





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TRACTORS TRANSPORTING HEAVY GUNS FROM FRENCH TRAINS TO THE FRONT LINE POSITIONS

est," the Poles in America telegraphed to the English prime minister, "have practically ceased to exist."

In Belgium and France civilians, including women and children, were used as a screen by German officers. "The soldiers came on in a mass," states a British soldier who witnessed one of these scenes, "with women and children massed in front of them. They seemed to be pushing them on and I saw them shoot down women and children who refused to march."

Often they killed the wounded and prisoners. "After to-day"—ran an order given August 26, 1914, by General Stenger of the 58th German brigade—"no more prisoners will be taken. All prisoners are to be killed. Wounded, with or without arms, are to be killed." Fourteen years before when the German troops embarked for the Boxer war in China, the kaiser addressing them said: "Just as the Huns a thousand years ago under the leadership of Attila, gained a reputation on which they still live in historic tradition, so may the name of Germany become known in such a manner in China that no Chinaman will ever again dare to look askance at a German." No wonder that we have learned throughout this war to call the Germans "Huns."

Before the war was a year old the English had much cause to complain of the inhuman treatment of their prisoners in German prison camps. Not long after it became almost a rule that the Red Cross instead of being a protection to the wounded or to the hospitals was made a target for German frightfulness. Submarines also went out deliberately hunting down hospital ships.

The whole theory was that terror was the way to shorten the war, and the Germans justified it as being really humane.

### THE HOPE OF THE HUN

In view of what has been related it seems fitting to quote the "hope" of a German major-general:

Major-General von Disfurth (retired), in an article contributed to the Hamburg *Nachrichten*, wrote as follows:

"Germany stands the supreme arbiter of her own methods. It is of no consequence whatever if all the monuments ever created, all the pictures ever painted, all the buildings ever erected by the great architects of the world be destroyed, if by their destruction we promoted Germany's victory. War is war. The ugliest stone placed to mark the burial of a German grenadier is a

more glorious monument than all the cathedrals of Europe put together. They call us 'barbarians.' What of it? We scorn them and their abuse.

"For my part, I hope that in this war we have merited the title, 'barbarians.' Let neutral peoples and our enemies cease their empty chatter, which may well be compared to the twitter of birds. Let them cease to talk of the Cathedral of Rheims, and of all the churches and all the castles in France which have shared its fate. Our troops must achieve victory. What else matters?"

### SCIENCE AND INVENTION APPLIED TO WAR

This war witnessed many innovations due to the progress of science and invention. Wherever armies came to a standstill in front of each other, they began to "dig in." They made vast and complicated systems of deep and narrow trenches that connected with each other; elaborate wire entanglements often charged with electricity, tall craters occupied by "snipers," and 45's, "pill-boxes," of steel and concrete to hold heavy guns. Hand grenades were used in hand-to-hand combat; steel helmets came back from the Middle Ages; the new word "camouflage" became familiar as describing the ingenious art of concealment.

The Germans surprised the world with great guns that could bombard towns 22 miles away, and finally developed a "wonder gun" that reached Paris from a distance of 72 miles. The French on the other hand excelled with their "75's," a quick-fire cannon with calibre of 75 millimeters—3 inches. The British borrowed from America huge caterpillar motors, armored, and armed with machine guns or rapid fire cannon, which they called "tanks." Six modern inventions have been conspicuous in the present war: the aeroplane, the submarine, the automobile, the wireless telegraph, the "tanks," the Zeppelin balloon. Of these the first two are American inventions; the automobile mainly French (partly German); the wireless telegraph is Italian; the "tanks" English. The only one of the six which has conspicuously failed is the Zeppelin; it is a German invention. The Germans also introduced two things which any one could have invented if he had been hard-hearted enough; liquid fire and poison gas.

### "FRIGHTFULNESS" IN AIR AND WATER

In the air, on the earth, and in the sea, the Germans utilized cruel and illegal methods of





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# AN ANTI-AIRCRAFT GUN

Firing on a German observation plane somewhere in France

warfare: The Zeppelins, enormous balloons, they used for dropping bombs on undefended British and French towns. On the land the Germans utilized poison gas and liquid fire, which caused the most terrible torture and death. On their retreat in France they poisoned the wells, and in Serbia they disseminated terrible disease germs.

But the violation of international law which caused the deepest indignation and finally aroused America to the real spirit of the Hun was the submarine warfare. The submarine has been regarded as a legitimate weapon against war-ships and even against merchant ships under careful restrictions, but Germany soon began, without warning and when possible without leaving a trace, the ruthless destruction of innocent men, women, and children. In turn the *Falaba*, the *Cushing*, the *Gulflight*, and finally on May 7, 1915, the *Lusitania* with its eleven hundred passengers, were sent to the bottom by German torpedoes.

In the meantime the Turks who had allied themselves with the Germans, as if in imitation of their "Christian" allies, attempted to exterminate the Armenian nation. It is thought that a million lives were lost by torture, by massacre, and by being driven helplessly into the desert.

All this was done to establish an empire like that of ancient Rome. Through terror of the greatest armed force of the modern world, Germany expected to win her will.

### THE WHOLE WORLD ENTERS THE CONFLICT

The war could not be confined to the three or four nations that began it.

First Montenegro joined her old ally, Serbia; then Japan declared war because of her alliance with Great Britain. Italy declared war with Austria in order to win back lands which Austria had forced away from her. Bulgaria broke away from her fellow-nations of the Balkans, tempted by Germany, and attacked Serbia. Portugal got in because of her long-standing alliance with Great Britain. Rumania encouraged by allied successes early in 1916, and, pressed on by Russia, attacked Austria. Greece deposed her king and joined the Allies. Siam and China, in the Far East, and a dozen of the South and Central American countries either declared war against Germany or broke off diplomatic relations. The United States was one of the last to take sides.

Not only in countries where the inhabitants were enslaved and forced to work for the Cen-

tral Powers but in the free countries, the coöperation of all the people became a notable factor in the war. Literally the whole nation, everywhere, was mobilized. The population was put on rations to conserve food, women went into the industries to replace the men—changing the old proverb, "Men must fight, and women must weep," to "Men must fight, and women must work"—boys and girls went to work on the farms and in the war plants, and the whole power of the commonwealth was put at the service of the State. This was true in America from the beginning. The United States cheerfully adopted conscription when it entered the conflict, everybody subscribed for the war loans and charities and the sacrifices of the people in the use of food and grain saved the allied countries from starvation.

### THE CHANGING SENTIMENT OF AMERICA

America intended to remain neutral. George Washington had warned us to beware of "entangling alliances" with the Old World. Monroe in his famous Doctrine had taught us that the peoples of Europe might go about their own business in any way they chose, if they would permit us who live in the two Americas to do the same. We could not believe all that we heard about the atrocities and tried to imagine that we were learning only one side of the story. America was the home of millions of citizens who had come from the warring countries of both sides. Most of us felt with our President that by keeping free from the conflict we could more effectively aid in restoring peace at its close.

Gradually American sentiment was alienated from Germany and Austria. We could not but condemn the unjustified invasion of Belgium, nor fail to admire her plucky resistance. Germany's monstrous crime in sinking the *Lusitania* caused a wave of horror and wrath to sweep the entire nation. Although we had some controversy with Great Britain because she put food for Germany on the contraband list, we began to feel that Germany could not excuse her attacks upon helpless merchant vessels on the ground that she was merely retaliating against the British policy. Retaliation is not endurable when it is exercised without any reference to the rights and lives of neutrals. If Great Britain did violently extend the rules of international law for her purposes, "there is a very marked difference between a prize court and a torpedo." We began to learn that America was full of German spies, that





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#### LIQUID FIRE MACHINES OF THE GERMANS

These machines were brought back from "No Man's Land" by American troops after a raid



Germany was financing a propaganda through paid writers and lecturers to deceive us, and that, even under the personal direction of the embassies of Germany and Austria, plots were being fomented against the national safety. The culmination of this treachery came when we learned that the German foreign minister had actually offered New Mexico, Texas, and Arizona to Mexico if she would attack the United States.

On the last day of January, 1917, the German government suddenly notified the United States that, beginning the next day, sea traffic would be stopped with every available weapon and without further notice. She made the insulting proposal that one American ship a week would be permitted to sail for a designated English harbor, provided it was painted with a striped uniform of humiliation. The President promptly dismissed the German ambassador and on April 6 Congress issued a declaration of a state of war with Germany. In asking for this declaration President Wilson uttered these historic words: "The world must be made safe for democracy. We desire no conquest, no dominion. We seek no indemnities for ourselves; no material compensation for the sacrifice we shall freely make. We are one of the champions of the rights of mankind. We shall be satisfied when those rights have been made as secure as the faith and the freedom of nations can make them."

### OUR REASONS FOR FIGHTING GERMANY

Our reasons for fighting Germany were briefly these: The German government had drowned our citizens, sunk our ships, destroyed our property, insulted our flag, and deprived us of the freedom of the sea, which is the public highway of humanity.

Germany had run amuck among the nations as an international desperado, robbing and murdering everywhere. Mercy and justice through all the world were at stake.

Germany's love and desire for war proved that country to be the greatest menace on earth to the peace and happiness of other peoples.

Germany had already announced through its kaiser that, after she had dominated the Old World, she expected to attack America.

The conflict had become a war between democratic nations on the one hand and autocratic nations on the other, and it was plain that the world could not hope to endure, as Lincoln used

to say, "half slave and half free." "We fight," said our Secretary of the Interior, Franklin K. Lane, "we fight with the world for an honest world in which nations keep their word, for a world in which nations do not live by swagger or by threat, for a world in which men think of the ways in which they can conquer the common cruelties of nature instead of inventing more horrible cruelties to inflict upon the spirit and body of man, for a world in which the man is held more precious than the machine, the system, or the State."

Let us now trace the general progress of the Great War year by year.

### THE CAMPAIGN OF 1914

Germany's general plan of action, as we have said, was first to crush France, then Russia, then Great Britain. She had this purpose worked out by a time-table. The distance from the German frontier to the banks of the Oise on the French frontier was six days' march, but through the splendid effort of Belgium this advance lasted sixteen days. The ten days delay at the cost of Belgium's sacrifice saved the world.

The Germans advanced in five armies through Belgium and Luxemburg.

The French under General Joffre hastily mobilized and warily defended themselves pending the arrival of the British. The joint armies made a slow and dogged withdrawal to the River Marne while a new French army was being formed.

The Germans actually arrived within 20 miles of Paris. General Gallieni, the defender of the capital, rallied a force, with taxi-cabs, busses, and every possible means of transportation, and held them fast. The Germans were forced to swerve to the east away from Paris.

A month later that battle-line was 180 miles long. The French and British forced the Germans to retreat from the River Marne to the River Aisne and "that battle"—said a great military critic—"decided that Europe should still be European and not Prussian." At the Marne France saved herself and Europe. Both sides now entrenched themselves from Switzerland to the North Sea and this battle-line remained practically stationary, with some slight swaying backward and forward, for the next three years.

The parts of France held by the Germans included 90 per cent. of her iron ore, 80 per cent. of her iron and steel manufactories, and 50 per cent. of her coal resources. The German con-





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THE WAR COUNCIL OF THE UNITED STATES NAVY DEPARTMENT

Secretary Daniels seated at the desk

quest of the Belgium coast furnished bases for her submarine warfare.

On the eastern front, Russia invaded East Prussia and was driven back by General Hindenburg, who henceforth became the idol of Germany. Russia, however, successfully pressed into Galicia in the east of Austria and threatened Hungary. Serbia, through Russia's aid, drove the Austrian invaders from her territory.

In the meantime German ships were swept from all the oceans and most of the German colonies were captured. Turkey joined the Teutonic lines.

At the end of the year the Germans were held on the western front and checked on the eastern and Germany and Austria were as yet cut off from their ally, Turkey. The Central Powers, on the other hand, were making tremendous preparations with artillery and munitions which during the next year were destined to change events sadly for the Allies.

#### THE CAMPAIGN OF 1915

The preponderance of the Teutonic artillery during this year made it impossible for the Allies to progress on the western front. The Russians were driven from Russian Poland and Austrian Galicia. Hungary was saved from invasion and Bulgaria joined the Central Powers and thus linked Turkey to Austria and Germany, and Serbia was entirely over-run.

During this year the Germans first used poison gas. Their Zeppelins raided England, with little military effect, though they killed or wounded over 3,300 helpless men, women, and children. In May they sunk the *Lusitania* with a loss of 1,198 lives, of whom 124 were Americans.

"The Teutons were no longer hemmed in; they had raised the siege."

#### THE CAMPAIGN OF 1916

The German crown prince lost half a million men in a determined endeavor to capture the fortress of Verdun. "Verdun was the grave of German claim to military invincibility." It was General Pétain who directed the heroic resistance and gave France the motto, "They shall not pass."

In the battle of the Somme, the Allies made some progress, but failed to break through the German lines. The Russians successfully advanced through Galicia and Armenia. The Italians, who had now joined the Allies, made a move northward which brought them within

thirteen miles of Trieste. In the battle of Jutland the British battle-cruiser fleet engaged the German high-seas fleet until darkness enabled the Germans to escape the oncoming British dreadnaughts. Rumania, encouraged by the allied successes, entered the war. She made an unsupported advance and was almost immediately crushed. The British made an excursion into Mesopotamia which was overwhelmed by the Turks and forced to surrender.

#### THE CAMPAIGN OF 1917

The Germans began unrestrained submarine warfare early in the year. Over 14,000 non-combatant English were done to death by this means. They relied upon this weapon to starve Great Britain out, but the result was to bring in America. The United States was unable to bring her full weight to bear during this year. Nevertheless, a quarter of a million troops were in France under General Pershing. China and Brazil and Greece, Siam, Cuba, and Panama, followed the United States in declaring war on Germany.

The Allies made small gains on the western front.

The British captured Bagdad and advanced from Egypt up into Palestine, Jerusalem surrendered in December.

The controlling and unexpected event of the year was the revolution in Russia. There was a well-founded suspicion that the czar was planning a separate peace with Germany, and he was forced to abdicate in March. The moderate Socialists and Radicals seized power under Alexander Kerensky and the military arm of Russia was paralyzed by giving committees of private soldiers power over their own officers. In November the extreme Pacifist Socialists, the Bolsheviks, overthrew Kerensky and began to negotiate a separate peace with Germany. When the Russian revolution permitted the withdrawal of Austrian troops to the Italian front, the reinforced Austro-German army made a counter-drive which undid the work of two years and enabled them to begin a disheartening invasion of northeastern Italy.

#### THE CAMPAIGN OF 1918

Nearly thirty nations had now broken off relations with Germany.

Russia divided into separate countries and provinces with civil war, political chaos, terrible suffering and crime existing everywhere. The





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GENERAL JOHN JOSEPH PERSHING

Bolsheviki signed a treaty of peace with the Central Powers and the so-called republic of Ukrainia in southern Russia made the same arrangement. Although the Germans were disappointed in securing food and supplies from this conquered empire, yet at least a million troops were relieved and transferred to the western front.

Italy broke the strength of the Austrian advance and the Allies made progress on the eastern front. The Central Powers made four spring drives against the Allies, constituting all together "the greatest and most momentous battle in the history of the world." They again reached a spot only 39 miles from Paris. The Allies, however, had achieved unity through the appointment to the supreme command of General Ferdinand Foch, the greatest strategist in France. America, by a stupendous miracle of achievement, had before the end of the year, sent an army of over two million men across the seas. At the fourth anniversary of the opening of the war, the fourth drive was checked, the tide was turned and the world of liberty-loving men began to breathe more freely.

#### ONLY JUSTICE COULD BRING PEACE

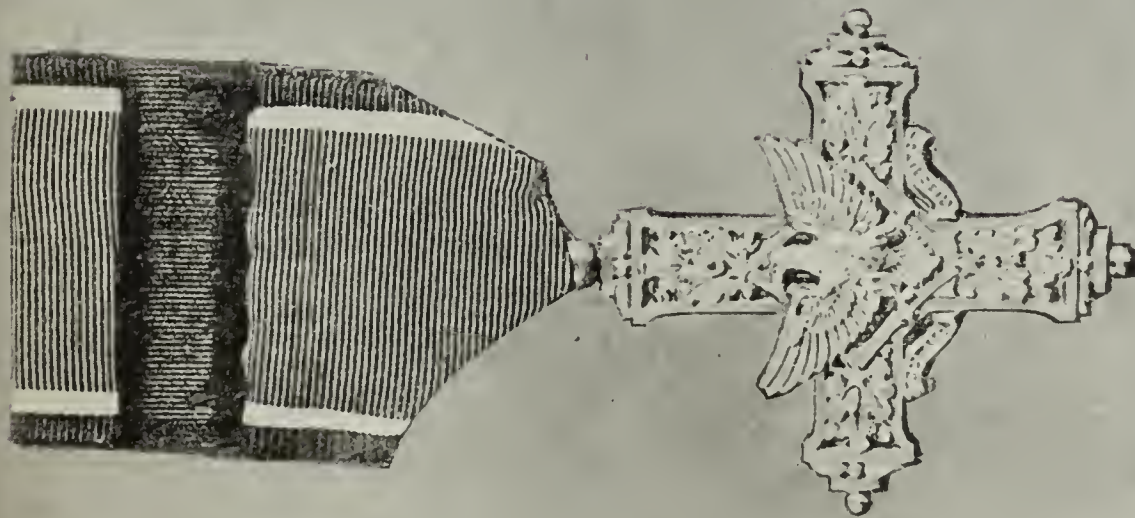
During these four years, various peace proposals were put forth by neutrals. The principles for an enduring peace that have been

stated by President Wilson won the approval of the Allies. The Germans, whenever their cause wavered, sought peace, but nevertheless made no tangible proposals. Their aim was to get the Allies together around a council table, to divide them and get them to quarreling, and then to make a compromise. Although they had not succeeded in defeating either France or Great Britain, if they could maintain the western front, they hoped at their leisure to annex all that had been western Russia and to over-run the Far East. In February, 1918, the kaiser said: "We desire to live in friendship with neighboring peoples, but the victory of German arms must first be recognized." And in March he boasted: "The prize of victory must not and will not fail us; no soft peace, but one corresponding with German interests."

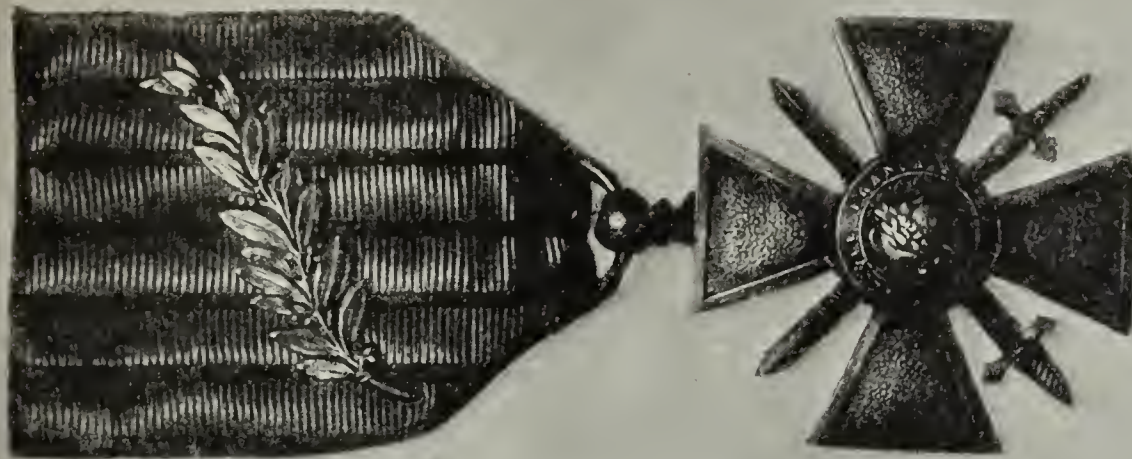
It became plain that Germany could learn nothing except through defeat. So long as war was profitable she would continue to wage it. Even our peace-loving President became convinced of this and said: "Our present and immediate task is to win the war and nothing shall turn us aside from it until it is accomplished. We shall regard the war as won only when the German people say to us, through properly accredited representatives, that they are ready to agree to a settlement based on justice and the reparation of the wrongs their rulers have done."







THE DISTINGUISHED SERVICE CROSS OF THE UNITED STATES



THE FRENCH CROSS OF WAR  
(CROIX DE GUERRE)

# STORIES FROM ENGLISH HISTORY FOR LITTLE FOLK

## A NEW WORLD

IN the days of King Henry the Seventh, men were beginning to love learning, and they wanted to know more about the world in which they lived. One clever man, named Columbus, sent his brother to ask King Henry if he would give him some ships, and money, so that he might go to look for new lands beyond the seas.

"I am sure that there must be lands of which we know nothing," he said, "and if you will give me what I ask, you shall have the glory of being king over the new country when I find it."

But Henry could not make up his mind to help Columbus. So the man went off to the King of Spain, and told him just what he had said to the King of England. The Spanish King listened, and thought he would like to help Columbus. He gave him three small ships, and filled them with Spanish sailors. Columbus then set out to find the New World.

For two long months he and his men sailed over the ocean, but they saw no land. The great sea was all round them; the sailors grew tired of it, and began to wish they had never left Spain. Then, just as they were feeling very unhappy, and looking over the blue sea, one of them cried out that he saw the branch of a tree floating by. "It is covered with green leaves," he said, "and it must have come from some land which is not very far off."

For a short time the sailors were more cheerful again. Day by day they went on, but there were no more signs of land. The men were sad, and Columbus called them all round him, for he knew that they were now angry. "If we do not see the new land to-morrow," he said, "we will sail straight back for home." The sailors were glad to hear this, and shouted, "Very well, for we are tired of seeing nothing but sea and sky for so long a time."

That night they stood upon the deck and looked out again, as they had so often done. Then they saw a line of light, which seemed to be shining on the edge of the sea. When morn-

ing came, they found that right in front of them was a beautiful island, on which palm-trees were growing, and flowers came down to the water's edge.

"Put out the boats," said Columbus, "and let us go on shore." No sooner had his feet touched the ground than he knelt down and thanked God, who had brought them safely to so fair a land.

The sailors gathered great bunches of flowers and fruit, and felt quite happy now. They had reached a part of the New World, and they forgot how often they had nearly given up the hope of seeing it.

What Columbus had found was one of a number of islands, which we now call the West Indies. He put up a Spanish flag, and said that the new lands belonged to Spain. But when the King of England heard of this, he also sent men to sail across the seas; and so it was that an English ship was the first to reach the shores of North America.

## PERKIN WARBECK

THE English were glad to have Henry the Seventh for their King, because he put an end to the long Wars of the Roses. Henry himself had always worn a red rose as his badge, but his Queen belonged to the party of the white rose, and on their wedding day, they both wore red and white roses tied together.

Still there were some people who wanted to take the crown from Henry. One of these was a young man, named Perkin Warbeck. He was good-looking, had nice manners, and went about like a prince. He said that he was one of the two little princes who, men thought, had been killed in the Tower by their cruel uncle King Richard III.

He told a strange story of how he had been able to get away, when his brother was killed. Many believed him, and were willing to fight for a young man that was so clever. For many years he gave a great deal of trouble to the





REGAL MAGNIFICENCE OF CARDINAL WOLSEY.

FROM THE PAINTING BY S. A. HART.



King. Henry sent troops against him, but when beaten in one place, he went to another.

At last he found his way to Cornwall, where many people did not like Henry. Here seven thousand men came to help him, and they were ready to fight against the King's soldiers. But Perkin was not a brave man. When it was dark, he left his troops and fled to a house in the New Forest. In those days there were some churches and houses inside which a man was quite safe, even if he had done wrong.

The King sent him word that he would pardon him if he came out. This Perkin did, and for some months he lived in the palace of King Henry, who treated him kindly.

Though still well watched, Perkin ran away one day. When he was taken again, the King sent him to the Tower, and after being kept there for about a year, he was put to death.

### THOMAS WOLSEY

THE next King, Henry the Eighth, had a friend whose name was Thomas Wolsey, who was the son of a butcher. By his good manners and in other ways he so pleased King Henry that he was made Archbishop of York.

Wolsey was a great man, but he was too fond of show. He wore fine clothes of silk and gold, kept many horses and men-servants, and had beautiful houses to live in. He went about almost as grandly as the King himself. When he rode out, large silver staffs were carried before him; his mule was covered with red velvet, and the saddle and trappings shone with gold.

He once went with Henry to see the King of France. The two Kings and their men met in a field, which was so grandly covered that it was called the "Field of the Cloth of Gold."

A few years later King Henry had a quarrel with the Pope, and he asked Wolsey to help him. Wolsey tried to please the King, but he failed to get the Pope to do what Henry wanted. In the end, Henry became so angry that he sent Wolsey to York and told him to stay there. Wolsey felt this very much. In London he had been the King's great favorite, and now the King would not even look at him. He still wanted to be friendly with King Henry, but it was of no use. At last, he was told to go back to London, to be tried as one who had done wrong against the King.

Wolsey was not well when the King's command reached him, but he dared not wait. He set out on his journey, with his horses, his men, and his mules. In those days it took a long time

to go from York to London, and when Wolsey was on the way his illness grew worse.

He turned aside to rest for a few days at an abbey. When the kindly abbot and the monks came out to welcome him, he felt so weak that he said, "I have come to lay my bones among you." The monks came round him, for he had many friends among them. They tried to cheer him, and said, "You will soon be better."

But Wolsey knew that he was going to die. "Ah!" he said, with a sigh, "If I had only served my God, as well as I have served my King, he would not have left me alone in my old age."

### A QUEEN FOR TEN DAYS

THE King who came after Henry the Eighth was his son, Edward the Sixth, who was only a boy. Because he was so young, other men had to look after the country. One of these was a great duke, whose son had married Lady Jane Grey, the King's cousin. The young King was often sick, and the duke got him to say that Lady Jane Grey should be queen after him. The weak King got Archbishop Cranmer to sign the paper giving the crown to Lady Jane. This same great man, Cranmer, was afterward sent to the Tower for treason.

When Edward died, the duke went to see her. She was sitting in a beautiful room, with walls of oak, and windows of stained glass, full of pictures. On her desk was a large book, which she was reading. She loved her quiet home, her books and flowers. She was very happy, and did not wish to live in the King's palace.

But the duke was a man who liked his own way, and he told Lady Jane that she must take the crown, and be a great queen.

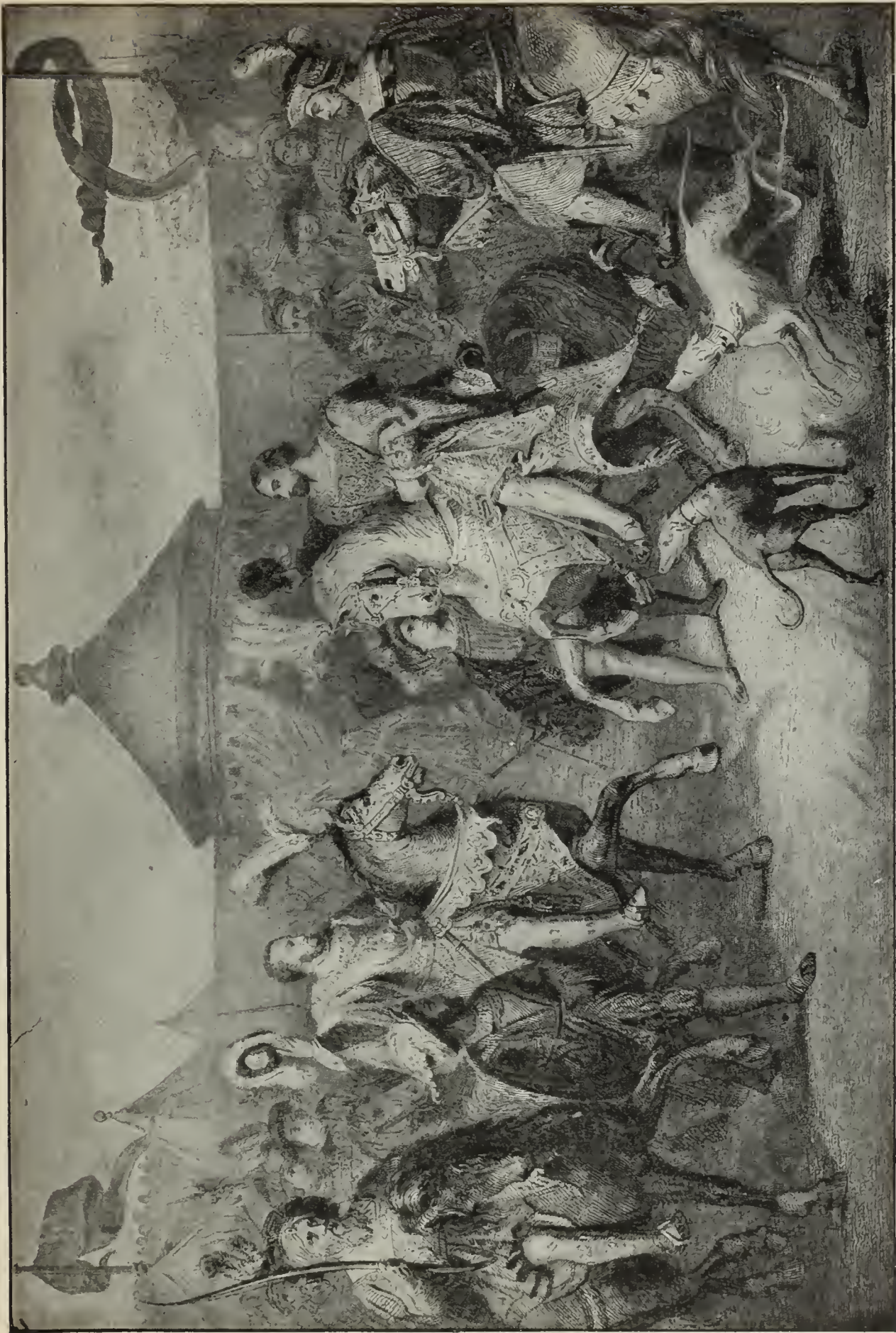
"I have no right to the crown," she said, "and it can never be mine while Edward's two sisters, Mary and Elizabeth, live."

But at last she gave way, and for ten days she was called queen. She was wise and clever, and might have made a good queen too. But the people were not pleased to have her. They did not like the duke, nor did they care for Jane's husband; so they said, "We will have the Princess Mary as our queen."

At that time Mary rode boldly through the streets, and showed herself to the people, who shouted, "God save Queen Mary!"

Lady Jane was glad to give up the crown, and go back to her own quiet home again. Not long after, she and her husband were sent to the Tower of London, and they were both put to death.





THE FIELD OF THE CLOTH OF GOLD, JUNE 15, 1520.

FROM THE PAINTING BY A. H. DEBAY.



## THE PRINCESS ELIZABETH

IN the beautiful gardens of Hatfield a young lady sat under the shade of a tree. She was reading, while the birds sang sweetly in the branches over her head. Her life was very quiet and happy in this pleasant place. She was rather a clever young lady too, fond of music, and able to play well on the lute. She could also speak French and Italian quite as well as English.

This was the Princess Elizabeth, one of the daughters of Henry the Eighth, and she knew that some day she might be queen of England.

As she sat under the trees, there was suddenly a stir in the garden. Elizabeth raised her eyes and saw a number of men coming toward her. They were some of the great lords of the country. They bowed very low, as they came near her. One of them knelt, and told her that her sister Mary was dead, and that she was now the Queen.

"Lady," he said, "your sister, our late Queen, is dead, and the people wait for your coming."

When she heard this, Elizabeth fell on her knees upon the fresh grass and asked God to help her to be a wise and good queen.

The people knew that Elizabeth was clever, and that she worked hard. They were glad to have such a lady to rule over them, and when she left her country house for London, they raised up great shouts of joy.

## MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS

AT this time, there was a Queen in Scotland, who is always called Mary Queen of Scots. Elizabeth was not at all friendly to her. When Mary was a little girl, she was taken to live in France, and there she was very happy. She liked the gay French people, and they were fond of the bright and merry girl, who was always ready for fun.

She was very beautiful, and moved about prettily; and the French were glad when she married their prince and became Queen of France. But the King died when he was still young; and Mary now had to go back to Scotland, of which she was also Queen. She took with her many friends, whom the Scots did not like.

After a time she married one of her own great lords. She lived in the fine palace of Holyrood, where we can still see the rooms that used to be hers, and even the bed in which she slept. But Mary was not happy in those days. The Scots did not care for her ways, and they were soon ready to quarrel with her. After some time they made her sign a paper, saying that she

would give up the crown to her son James, who was a very small child.

The Scots now shut up the Queen in a castle; as it was built on an island, and so had water all round it, they thought she would be quite safe there. Mary had still a great many friends, who loved her well, and these tried hard to get her away. But she would never have got out with no one to help her. She had a young friend inside the castle, a page who waited on her, and who liked her so well, that he was ready to do anything she wished.

The castle gates were locked every night, and the keys were laid by the keeper's side when he sat at supper in the big hall. The boy who was Mary's friend had to look after these keys.

One night, when the keeper sat down to supper, the boy came in with a dish which seemed so hot that a cloth had to be put round it lest he should burn his fingers. When he took away the cloth, he carried the key of the gate with it, and took it to Queen Mary, who was waiting.

The Queen went softly down the stairs, and the boy hurried on to open the gate. When Mary and her ladies had passed out, he locked it again from the outside. The keeper and his men were now shut in, instead of the Queen. The boy helped the ladies into the keeper's own boat, and rowed them quickly to the shore. "They cannot follow us, lady," he said, as he rowed. "I left them too safely shut in for that; and besides, we have the boat."

But, even as he spoke, a shot came over the water. Lights shone in the castle, and loud cries rang from the towers, which made the ladies shake with fear. But it was dark, and the boat could not be seen from the castle. The boy rowed the ladies safely to the shore, and friends soon came to meet them. They had horses ready, and they rode away at once. Mary felt that she was now free—she did not know that worse troubles were yet to come.

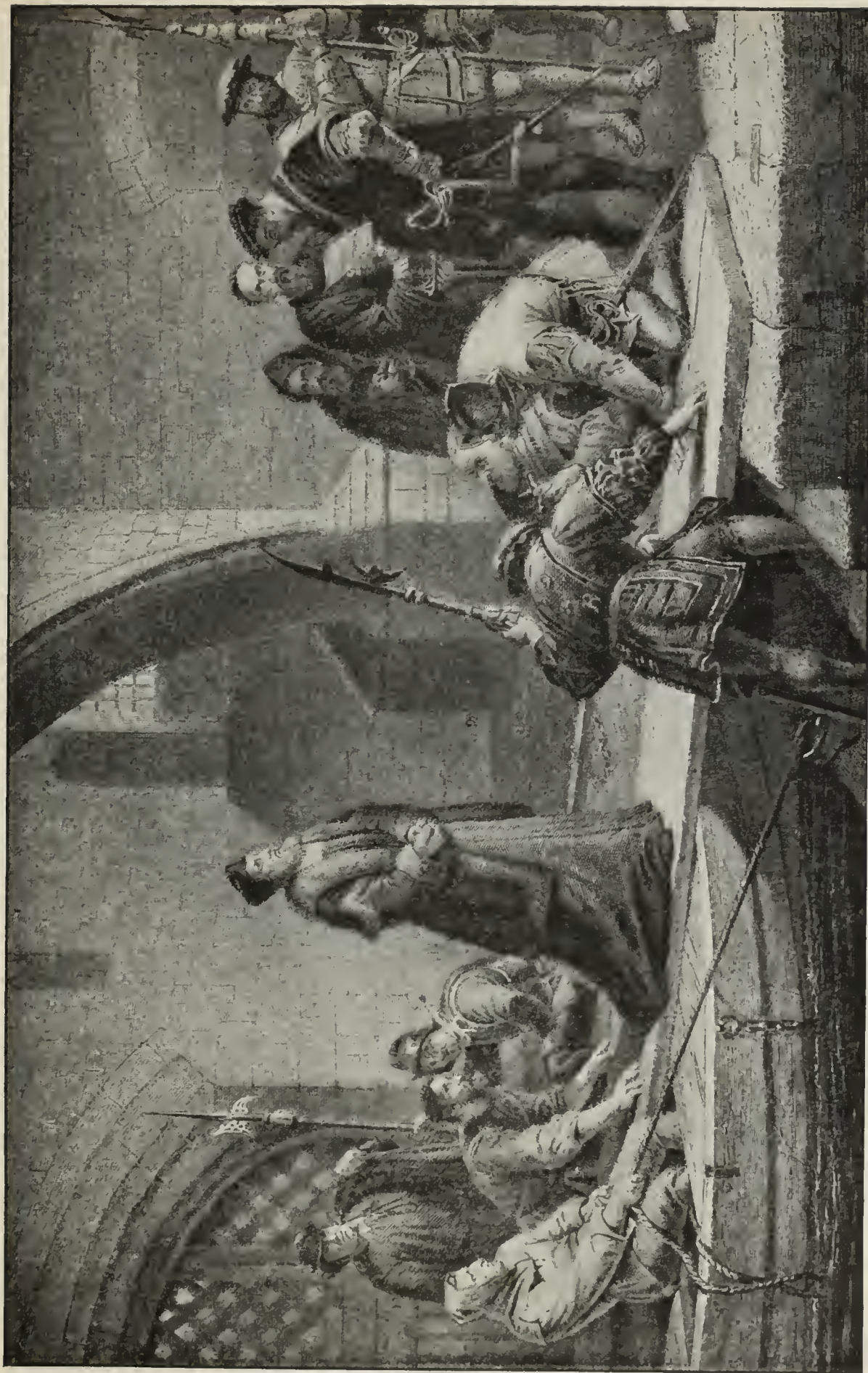
The Scots would not have her for their queen, and so she went to England. She hoped that Elizabeth, who was her cousin, would help her. But the English put Mary in prison and kept her there for nineteen long years.

Many times her friends tried to get her free. Some of them even wanted to make her queen, instead of Elizabeth. This made the English very angry with Mary, and at last they put her to death.

## THE SPANISH ARMADA

THE King of Spain saw what a great Queen Elizabeth had become. He wished to marry her, but she would have nothing to do with him.





CRANMER AT THE TRAITORS' GATE.

FROM THE PAINTING BY F. GOODALL.



"If I cannot have the lady, I will have her kingdom," he said, and that was really what he wanted. He was also very angry, because of the death of Mary Queen of Scots. So he sent the Armada, a great fleet of one hundred and thirty big ships, full of Spanish sailors and captains, with their guns and powder, to fight against England.

Some of the people in that country were afraid when they heard that the Spaniards were coming. They thought that the Spanish King was a wicked man, and they did not know what he might do. But Elizabeth was brave, and there were many fine captains in her ships. She felt sure that they would never let the Spaniards win. The Queen's ships might be small, but they were good, and there were many of them. Drake and the other English sailors were used to the sea, and they could fight well.

One evening, when Drake and some of the English captains were playing a game of bowls on the smooth grass at Plymouth, a man came running toward them. "The Spaniards are coming!" he cried. "You can see their sails now, and they will soon be upon us." Still Drake went on with his game. "Let us finish this," he said quietly. "There will be time enough for the Spaniards when we have done."

The news went quickly up and down the country. On every hill big fires were lighted, by which all the people knew that the Armada was indeed quite close to their shores.

The Spanish ships sailed in the shape of a half-moon, and the English ships looked very small by their side. No wonder that some people shook their heads, and said, "It is a bad day for England." But the small English ships were, after all, going to win the day. They sailed much faster than the big Spanish vessels. They ran up and fired their shots into them, and then got away. Over and over again they did this, and thus they drove the Armada before them, until some of the Spanish ships went on shore and were wrecked.

When night came on, the English had another way to surprise the enemy. They took eight old ships, and filled them with things that would burn quickly. They set fire to these vessels and when they were blazing sent them among the ships of the Armada. What a stir they made! The Spanish captains were so frightened that they pulled up their anchors and went out to sea in a hurry. They were afraid that their ships would catch fire. When they made haste to go away, the English ships went after them, and did as much mischief as they could, until they had no more powder or shot left.

But now a great storm arose. The winds blew the ships about, and the waves tossed them up and down. Some of the big Spanish vessels were blown on to the rocks, and so they were wrecked. Only fifty of these fine ships sailed back to Spain, to tell the King of that country the story of the Armada. "I sent my ships against men, not seas," said the King, when he heard what his captains said.

The people of England shouted for joy, when they heard the news, and the Queen went to St. Paul's to give thanks to God. "This great victory," said Elizabeth, "was won by the help of God." So she had some beautiful gold medals made, on which were the words: "The Lord sent his wind, and they were scattered."

### SIR WALTER RALEIGH

IN all the pictures of Elizabeth which we have, she is painted as having a great ruff round her head, which seems to stand up stiffly. She was very fond of wearing fine dresses, and it is said that she had more than one thousand in her great cedar-wood chests. She also liked fun, and could laugh at a joke just as much as any one else. But she could be very angry too, and sometimes she scolded her lords as if they were little boys.

This great Queen, who kept every one in order, was pleased to have nice-looking people round her, and she liked those best who had good manners. One of the great men who pleased her was Walter Raleigh. He had been in many lands, where he had seen strange things, and Elizabeth liked to hear his stories.

One day, when the Queen went for a walk, with all her lords and ladies round her, they came to a place in the road where the mud was both thick and deep. Elizabeth did not care to step across it, lest she should soil her pretty shoes. She stood for a moment thinking what she should do. Just then Walter Raleigh came up, and he saw the mud. At once he took off his fine cloak of rich velvet and threw it down to cover the mud. Now the Queen could pass over without having a spot upon her shoes!

When Elizabeth saw what he had done, she was pleased. She crossed with dry feet, and a bright smile rose to her face. The Queen did not forget such nice manners. She made Walter Raleigh one of her chief men, and she became very fond of him.

### SIR PHILIP SIDNEY

ONE of the men for whom Queen Elizabeth had great liking was Sir Philip Sidney. She



called him the jewel of her country. Besides being a brave soldier, he was a poet, and could write beautiful verses. Sidney was also good-looking; but best of all, he had a kind heart. He was always ready to give to those in need of help.

A very good story is told of him. In those days the Spaniards were fighting the Dutch in the country called Holland, and Sir Philip went with a band of soldiers to help the Dutch. The Spaniards fought hard, and the fight was a long one. Before it ended, a bullet hit Sir Philip on the leg, and hurt him so much that he lay on the ground unable to move. The pain made his throat very dry, and he asked for water to drink. Some one ran and brought a cupful, and held it to his lips. Near by another soldier was lying. He too had been hurt very badly, and was dying. When he saw the clear cold water held to the lips of Sidney, he could not help looking at it. Sir Philip saw the look. He passed the cup, at once, to the poor soldier. "Drink it friend," he said, "you need it more than I do."

He had always been kind, and even when he was in the greatest pain himself, he could think of others in their trouble.

Sir Philip only lived for a few days after this; he died from the wound which he had received on the battle-field. Such a noble man can never be forgotten.

## IN THE DAYS OF GOOD QUEEN BESS

UNDER Queen Elizabeth England became a very great country. Her sailors were found on every sea, and her soldiers were known for their courage. In her days the greatest of English poets lived and wrote, and you must never forget that his name was Shakespeare. He helped the people to live more happily, and to have pleasure in other things besides fighting.

In those days there were no big cities, such as we have now. But there were many smaller ones, with pretty houses of brick and stone. There were plenty of trees, and gardens full of flowers. The streets were narrow, and hanging out in front of every shop was a sign, by which it was known. The houses had chimneys, and coal was being used for fires in many places.

Glass windows were seen in nearly every dwelling, and at night candles gave light. The richer people had plates of pewter, or of silver, while the poorer used tin. Feather beds and pillows were used instead of the wooden ones of early days. Many rich people had carpets on their floors; but rushes were still spread by those who were not so well off.

Potatoes were much liked for food; they had just been brought over from America, and were first planted in the British Isles by Sir Walter Raleigh. People dined at eleven o'clock in the morning, and many dishes which we should think rather strange were served. Among other things, boars' heads and young swans were eaten. On great days peacocks might be served, with their beautiful tails spread finely out over the dish, and reaching almost to the ground.

Men and women were fond of fine clothes, made of silk or velvet. They also wore big ruffs, or collars, which stood up round their heads, and were made stiff by wire. Some friend of the Queen gave her a pair of silk stockings, which pleased her very much; and she never wore any other kind of stocking after this.

Games of all kinds were played. In every town or village there was a green piece of grass, on which the children, and even the older people, went out to play. May-poles were put up, and the young ones danced round them merrily. At Christmas-time, when it was too cold for outdoor sports, the yule-log burned on every hearth. The large log was brought in amid the sound of music, and there was much feasting.

People went to bed early, and they also rose early. Most of the men spent the day working in the fields, or in shops. Even great lords were proud to be farmers, and on some days they could be seen riding to market, which was often many miles away, to sell their game, grain, butter, and wool.

Ladies sat at home with their maidens round them, busily making coats, blankets, and other things which might be wanted for the family. They spent many hours at their work. Sometimes they made beautiful curtains, or hangings. Some of these can still be seen in many of the big castles, where they are carefully kept.

In some of the towns frames were set up for weaving wool and linen into cloth. Men and women found work in this way, and many of them became very rich.

Altogether, the England of Elizabeth's time must have been rather a pleasant land to live in. The Queen loved her people, and did her best to make their life peaceful and happy.

## THE "GUNPOWDER PLOT"

EVERYBODY in England knows that the fifth of November is called "Guy Fawkes Day." The noise of the fireworks let off on that day brings to mind a very terrible thing done many years ago.

On the death of Elizabeth, James the First be-

came King of England. There were a good many men who did not like him, because he would not do what they wanted. James was the son of that beautiful lady Mary Queen of Scots, and some people thought that he would be a good friend to the Roman Catholics, as his mother had been.

When it was found that James did not mean to help them, Robert Catesby and others made up their minds to punish him. They knew that the King would be going one day, with all his lords, to the Houses of Parliament. They took thirty-six barrels of gunpowder, and hid them in the cellars, just under the place where the King would sit. A man named Guy Fawkes was paid to set light to the barrels. In this way they meant to blow up the King, the lords, and all who were in the place. But their plan failed because James heard of it in time.

One of those who knew all about it had a friend who was with the King. He was very sorry that his friend was in such danger; so he wrote and asked him to stay away, lest he should be killed. This friend at once took the letter to the King, who soon saw what it meant. He sent men to look through the cellars, and they found Guy Fawkes with his lantern, and the barrels of gunpowder to which he was to set fire.

Fawkes was taken before the King, who asked him by whom he had been paid to do such a thing. At first he would not answer, but at last he gave the names. As soon as the others heard that their plan was known they fled from London. They hoped that their friends in the country would help them. The King sent troops against them. Catesby died fighting to the end. Others were taken and were put to death with Guy Fawkes.

#### DAYS OF TROUBLE

KING JAMES THE FIRST had a son named Charles. He was a tall man, and had a nice face and long black curly hair. At his father's death he became King as Charles the First. In his days there seemed to be nothing but trouble. Charles was too fond of his own way, and he did things which made his people very angry with him. At last many of them went to war against him. Charles also had a large number of friends who were willing to fight for him. In the war many brave Englishmen fell on both sides.

The friends of Charles were called Cavaliers. They could ride well on horses, wore fine clothes, and kept their hair very long, just as the King himself did. Those who fought against Charles

were called Roundheads, because they wore their hair very short. Some of them were also known as Ironsides, because they were so brave in battle. The leader of these was Oliver Cromwell.

Charles was beaten in the war, and he was put to death. Before the end came, some of his children were allowed to see him. He felt it very hard to say "Good-by" to them. Charles was not a great king, but he was a kind man. He loved his children very much, and he was good to all his friends.

His eldest son was Prince Charles. He had to leave the country, and he did not become king for eleven years after the death of his father. All this time there was no king in England. Oliver Cromwell now looked after the country. He was called Lord Protector, and he tried to do his best for the people. But the friends of Prince Charles did not like Cromwell, and they never rested till the prince was brought to London, and crowned King in the place of his father.

#### THE ROYAL OAK

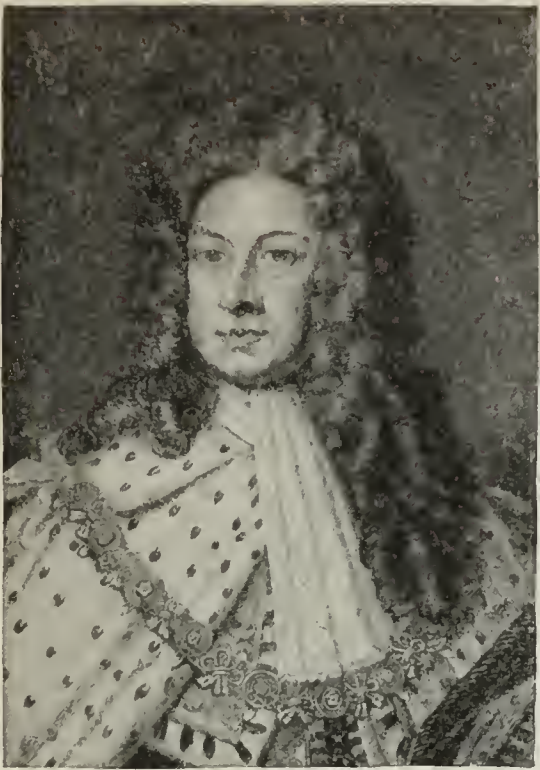
PRINCE CHARLES lived for some time in a country called Holland. Soon after the death of his father, his friends, who wished to fight for him, asked him to come over to England and lead them. But Cromwell was a great soldier, and the friends of the prince were beaten in two great battles. While Cromwell lived Charles had no chance of being king.

Some very strange things happened to the prince at this time. After the last battle, he very nearly fell into the hands of Cromwell's men. One day Charles was in a wood, looking for a place in which he could hide from the soldiers, who were hurrying after him. He climbed into the branches of an oak-tree, and there he hid until the men had gone away. The people of the place afterward called this tree the Royal Oak.

At another time Charles had to dress as a man-servant, and ride in front of a lady. They looked just like a mistress and a servant going to market, and so no one took notice of them. The prince was glad to get away from England once more.

Some years later Cromwell died, and the people then wanted Charles to be king. The next time he landed in England he was met by a crowd of people, who shouted with joy. The bells of all the churches rang, and the streets were decked with flowers. All along the road, as he drove by in a beautiful coach, drawn by





GEORGE I



GEORGE II



GEORGE III



GEORGE IV

THE FOUR GEORGES.



many fine horses, men and women came out of their houses, and stood to see him pass.

Charles could see from their faces that they were greatly pleased. "It is my own fault," he said, to those around him, "that I did not come back sooner, for everybody wants me." He reached London on his birthday, the twenty-ninth of May. On this day the King's friends wore sprigs of oak, and so it was ever afterward called "Royal Oak Day," or "Oak Apple Day."

### THE GREAT PLAGUE

IN the days of Charles the Second, London was not so fine a city as it is now. The streets were narrow and very dirty. The houses were built of wood and they were not kept as clean as they should be.

Quite suddenly, a fearful sickness broke out in one part of the city. It spread quickly, and no one was safe from it. Little children, as well as grown-up people, died from this Great Plague, as it came to be called. All who were able to leave London went away as fast as they could. Even the King and his court hurried off to another city, many miles from London.

Most of those who were taken ill died in a few hours. The sick were often left to die alone, because their friends were afraid to stay and nurse them. The houses in which those who had caught the plague lived were marked with large red crosses, and the words "Lord, have mercy upon us" were written or painted upon the doors.

When night came carts went round to take the dead bodies to the churchyard. The men who went with the carts carried torches, and cried out, "Bring out your dead." Soon there was not room enough in the churchyards for all who died; so a big pit was dug outside the city, and here the dead were buried, without even one word of prayer. In the streets of London the grass began to grow, for few people passed through them. Many of the shops, or stores, were shut; there were not enough people to buy things, and hardly any one cared to sell.

All through the summer the sickness was very great. When winter came the plague began to pass away, but it did not wholly cease before one hundred thousand men, women, and children had died of it.

### THE GREAT FIRE OF LONDON

NEXT year, when the people were beginning to forget the plague, a fire broke out in a baker's shop near London Bridge. It burned for three

days, and soon spread over all the houses in that part of London.

You must remember that these houses were largely built of wood, and that the streets were very narrow. A high wind also blew at the time, and this caused the flames to spread quickly from one house to another.

In country places fifty miles away the flames lit up the sky, and the smoke could be seen, like a black cloud, over the city of London. The big church of St. Paul's, and many other churches, were burned to the ground. All the chairs, pictures, and tables that could be saved from the burning houses were thrown into the boats on the river.

There were now hundreds of little children who had no homes. Their fathers took them out into the fields, where tents were quickly put up for them to sleep in.

When the wind went down, men were sent with gunpowder, and these blew up the houses that were left in the part nearest to the fire. This seems, perhaps, a strange thing to some of you, but it was really very wise. The fire was thus stopped from going any farther, as there were no more houses to feed it. The same thing is sometimes done in case of a great fire to-day.

In the end that great fire did good. It swept away the narrow streets, and wider ones were made instead. The old wooden houses were gone, and new ones were built of brick and stone. In the new houses larger windows were made, to let in more light and air; and many other things were done to make the city cleaner and more healthy.

A fine new cathedral was built by a clever man, Sir Christopher Wren. It is the one you will see if ever you go to London—the great St. Paul's in which Wren and many other good men have been buried.

### THE BRAVE PEOPLE OF LONDON-DERRY

KING JAMES THE SECOND was not liked by the English. He ran away to France, and afterward asked the King of that land, to help him to take Ireland from the English. With a number of French soldiers he crossed the sea, and he found that many of the Irish were willing to take up arms for him.

But there was one place at least which was not friendly to James. The people of Londonderry shut the gates of their city against him, and said they would rather starve than have him for their king. James said he was ready to wait until they did starve! He placed his men all



round the city, and put heavy pieces of wood across the river; so that no ships could come up with food, or bring men to help those who were within the walls.

James hoped they would soon begin to feel hungry, for then, he thought, they would let him into the city. But he did not know how brave these people were. Some were sick; all were hungry; and many were weak and faint. Day after day they would creep into the high towers, and look down the river, watching for a sail. They often prayed that help might quickly come.

At last three ships could be seen sailing up the river, and many eyes were watching them. James and his men thought they would never be able to get through the bar which they had laid across the river. The ships sailed on, and one of them came against the wood with such force that it broke the bar right in two. The sailors cheered when they saw what had been done.

Through the gap thus made the ships passed on, and they brought enough food for the starving people of the city. For one hundred days they had been in great want, but now all that was over. When James saw that they were saved, and that help had come, he told his soldiers to take down their tents, for he knew that he could no longer hope to take the city of Londonderry.

James had a daughter named Mary, and she was now Queen of England, while her husband, William was King. William was a fine soldier, and he won a great battle over James. He also carried on a long war against the King of France. Some rich men joined together to find money for the war, and out of this grew the Bank of England.

### "BONNIE PRINCE CHARLIE"

THERE was one young man of the Stuart family who was much loved by the people of Scotland. They called him "Bonnie Prince Charlie," and sang many pretty songs about him and his friends and their doings. They were even ready to fight for him, and to put him on the throne of his grandfather, James the Second.

So Charles came to Scotland full of joy, and many people joined him. They liked his gay, bright manners, and his pleasant smiling face. He was young, and was always happy, and full of hope. Those who went with him took care that he had the best rooms in Holyrood Palace, of which you have already read.

But Charles fell into great trouble when he marched into England. The English did not want him, and they did not rush out to meet

him as the Scottish people did. At last his men were badly beaten, and he had to run away.

For five months he went from place to place, hiding among his friends, or wherever he could. Although a very big sum of money was offered to any one who would tell where he was, nobody said a word, but many helped him on his way. Once he was saved by the kindness of a young lady, who dressed him as her maid. He must have looked rather a tall woman in his gown, and white apron, and long cloak, for it is said that he was six feet high.

He was often in danger, and at one time he had to hide for some weeks in a cave. At last news came that a ship was waiting to take him to France. As soon as he heard this he went in the dark night to the seashore, and so reached the ship, and sailed to France. Many people were sorry for all the troubles that came upon this pleasant prince.

### GENERAL WOLFE

ALL of you, no doubt, will like to hear something about the large country called Canada. It belongs to Great Britain, and many of her people have made their home in Canada.

Once upon a time the French said Canada was theirs, and many of the big towns are still called by the names they gave them. But a large army, under young General Wolfe, was sent to win Canada for England. Wolfe wanted to reach the large city of Quebec. "If I can take this city," he said, "I shall not have much trouble with the other towns."

The French soldiers were trying to make Quebec very strong. They also got the Indians whose home was in that country to help them, and these people, with their cruel weapons, killed many of the English soldiers.

One night Wolfe got his men to row up the river in boats. They made little noise, for they did not want the French to hear the sound of their oars. And so they came near the city, and were able to land. There was a steep hill between Wolfe and Quebec, and he knew that he must climb this before he could get there.

The French did not expect an army to reach their city over this hill. Suddenly one of their guards thought he heard a strange noise; it sounded like the march of many feet. He gave the alarm to the French troops, who came up quickly. The British had now reached the top of the hill, and a battle began at once. It was very short, but it was also sharp, and many men on both sides fell dead.

The brave Wolfe was shot while leading on





BRITISH MILITARY AND NAVAL OFFICERS.



his men. Just at this moment the French began to give way, and one of the British soldiers seeing this, cried out, "They run! They run!" "Who run?" asked Wolfe, lifting his head quickly. "The French, sir," said the man. Then Wolfe smiled brightly. "Now I can die happy," he said.

So Quebec became England's, and because of its fall, the land of Canada was soon won too. But the people at home were very sorry to hear of Wolfe's death, for Britain had lost another great hero.

### ROBERT CLIVE

THERE was once a boy named Robert Clive, who gave his father and mother a good deal of trouble. He had so many bad friends that his father thought it wise to send him to India, a country very far off.

He was going to be a clerk in an office, but sitting at a desk all day did not seem very cheerful to a boy who was fond of roaming about, as he was.

Not long after he reached India, war broke out between the English and the French in that country; and Clive was glad to leave the office and become a soldier. Very bold and daring, he quickly rose to be an officer. He was made a captain, and so had a number of men under him.

Everybody now began to talk about the brave young man, who had done such great deeds in India; and Clive found himself quite a hero, when he went home to England for a holiday. A fine sword was given to him, and many words were said in his praise. The naughty boy had become a great man, and all his friends were very proud of him.

But Clive could not stay in England, and he again set out for India, where there was still much work for him to do. One of the princes of that country hated the English, and he threw nearly one hundred and fifty of them into one small room, where they could not lie down, or sit, or even move. For one whole night they were shut up in this way. They had little air and no water, and when the door was opened in the morning only twenty-three of them were found alive.

Clive was sent to punish that cruel prince. He had only a small army, and the enemy was more than ten times as great. But Clive and his men fought boldly and bravely, and thus they won the great battle of Plassey. The prince was killed by one of his own men, to whom he had been unkind, and his country was taken by the English.

### CAPTAIN COOK

ONE of those who helped to win Quebec was the famous Captain Cook. He sailed up the river before Wolfe, and found the path by which the British soldiers climbed the hill.

Cook was the son of a poor man, and when he was quite a small boy he was sent to work in a shop; for in those days very young children went out to earn their own living. He lived close to the sea at Whitby, in Yorkshire, and sometimes he heard the sailors talk of the strange places they had seen. It made him wish he too were a sailor.

One day he went to a captain who was in the port, and asked to go with him, if only as a cabin-boy on board his ship. When at last the captain said he would take him, the boy was very glad. Cook did not find his new life an easy one, but he did not mind hard work. He spent his spare time in reading books which told him all about ships, and how to do his work better. He knew how wise it was to learn as much as he could, and he never wasted a minute.

In this way he was able to get on, and in the end he was made a captain of one of the king's ships. Not only did he see many of the countries of which the Whitby sailors had told him, but he found out some others, of which no one, as yet, knew anything.

Captain Cook sailed round the country we call New Zealand. He found that there were two very large islands here, and that the people who lived on them were rather a fine race. He then sailed to a part of Australia, where he saw many new and curious plants and flowers. He called the place where he landed Botany Bay.

In the South Seas Captain Cook found out some other islands, where no white man had ever been before; and here, sad to say, his life came to an end. Some black men had stolen a boat from his ship, and as he wanted this boat, he took some of his sailors in another boat and went on shore.

Cook thought the black men would give back the boat they had stolen, but he found that they were very angry. They came down to the sea-side with sticks, spears, and knives in their hands. The sailors went back to their boat, but Cook failed to do so, and was killed. This was a sad end to so fine a sailor.

### THE STORY OF NELSON

HORATIO NELSON was a small, thin child, who did not look as if he would ever be a great man.





ENGLISH STATESMEN.



But as he grew up, he showed what a brave boy he was. He never seemed to be afraid.

Once when he was still quite young, he and his brother William were going back to school after the Christmas holidays. "The ground is quite white and the snow is deep," said their father. "I do not think you can reach school, but you must try. If you find it too much, you can come back, but you must do your best to go on."

The boys set off, but they had not gone very far before William began to think it was really too bad. "Let us go back," he said; "our father told us we might return, if the storm went on."

"Yes," said Horatio, "but we were also told that, if we could go on, we were to do so"; and on they went.

When Horatio became a bigger boy, he chose to go to sea; he loved the blue water and the tossing waves. And he made a very good sailor, for he knew no fear. Now, sailors go into many strange places. The ship, in which Nelson was, once sailed toward the North, and it got among the ice. A big white bear was seen moving over the ice.

Nelson and one of his friends left the ship, and went after the bear with their guns. They fired at the bear without killing it. The sailors on board heard the shots, and some of them rushed to see what was the matter. They saw Nelson hitting the bear with his gun. The sailors came up just in time to save him and to kill the bear.

The captain was angry. "Why risk your life like this?" said he. "I wanted the skin as a present for my father," said Nelson.

When quite a young man, Nelson was made the captain of a ship of war. His sailors liked him very much, and would do anything for him. Often he had to fight the enemy, and then he showed how brave he was. Besides, he always knew what was the best thing to do, and he was quick in doing it.

At this time there was a great man in France, whose name was Napoleon. From being quite poor, he had risen to be the first person in that country. He was not friendly to England. He wanted to beat the English on land and at sea, and he would have liked to make their country a part of his. But he soon found that Nelson was quite as clever in war as he was. There were many great battles on the sea, and Nelson always won.

The last of these, the battle of Trafalgar, was fought off the coast of Spain, and it would have been a sad thing for England if the French had won that day.

When Nelson first saw the French ships they

were coming across the blue water in two lines, and he went at once to meet them. Just before the fight began he gave his men that famous message, "England expects every man to do his duty."

Nelson's ship was the "Victory," and the French could see him walking up and down the deck, dressed in his admiral's coat, and having many stars on his breast. When the fight was very hot, a shot hit him in the shoulder, so that he fell on the deck. His men lifted him in their arms and carried him below, and there he lay in great pain.

He felt very weak, and he knew quite well that he had come to the end of his days; but still he listened to hear how the battle was going on. At last he was told that the day was gained for England, and that many of the French ships were taken. This was good news for him. A smile came over his face. "Thank God," he said, "I have done my duty." Very soon after he died. His body was taken to London, and buried in the great church of St. Paul's.

## THE STORY OF WELLINGTON

Two very famous men were born in the same year. One was Napoleon, of whom you have just read, and the other the Duke of Wellington. Although the British and the French were often at war, these great generals were only once in battle against each other; it was on the field of Waterloo, a place which many people still go to see.

With Wellington was a large army of British and other soldiers, and there were also many Prussians coming to help him. A little way off was Napoleon with his men.

One Saturday night the two armies slept near Waterloo, waiting for the morning light, and about ten o'clock next day the French began the battle. Over and over again they dashed against the British, but were always driven back. Evening was coming on, when Napoleon sent for the men of his Old Guard. These were very brave and strong, and were the finest soldiers he had; he felt sure that they would win. They came marching up boldly; then there was another stiff fight, but they were beaten like the others. "It is all over," said Napoleon, and he rode away quickly, while the whole French army also fled.

The Prussians had now come up, and their old general, Blücher, and Wellington met on the field of battle. The Prussians were sent to follow the French, while the British soldiers were allowed to rest after their hard day.

Wellington lived for many years after this. The British were very proud of him, because he won such a great battle for them. He was a kind man, and always had a good word for those who tried to do what was right. One day he and some friends were out hunting, and coming to a certain field, they found the gate shut. A boy was keeping watch over it; he had been told by the farmer not to let any one pass that way, for fear of doing harm to the crop.

"Open the gate, my lad, and let the duke's party go through," said one of the men, holding out a coin. The boy lifted his hat, but would not take the money. "I am sure," said he, "the Duke of Wellington would not wish me to disobey the orders of my master, who has told me to keep this gate shut."

Much pleased at this reply, the great duke also took off his hat, and he said, "I honor the man or boy who does his duty, and who will not be frightened by anybody into doing wrong." Then, handing the boy a gold coin, the old duke rode away with his friends.

The boy ran off to his master, shouting, "Hurrah! I've done what Napoleon could not do; I've kept back the Duke of Wellington."

### GEORGE STEPHENSON

IF you go up the river Tyne, you can still see a small cottage where a man named George Stephenson was born in the year 1781. While he was yet a small boy he had to earn money by minding the cows of a farmer. Near his home was a coal-pit, and when he was old enough he was sent there to work at an engine.

George worked hard all day, and at night went to school, where he learned to read and write and to like books. He never wasted time, and thus, though a poor man, he was able to do great things.

In those days there were no railways, and people had to travel in coaches drawn by horses. The horses were driven very fast, and when they came to a street or cross-road, a man behind blew a horn to tell people that the coach was coming. It took a long time then to get from the country to London. Men were often for days on the road, and had to stop for the night at many places. This cost a good deal of money, and so few could travel far from home.

But George Stephenson was going to change all that. Instead of coaches, he wanted to have railway trains, which would take people a long way in a shorter time, and for less money. He had always been very fond of engines. He spent

all the time he could working on them, and he was able to make one which could move on wheels along the ground.

His first engine could only go very slowly, but he kept on trying and trying, until one day he made an engine, called the "Rocket," which could move at the rate of thirty miles an hour. Crowds of people came to see this engine draw a coach on rails, and it was thought very wonderful. This was the beginning of our railways.

At first people did not like the new way of traveling. They thought it was not safe to go by train, and many years passed before they gave up the old coaches.

### THE PRINCESS VICTORIA

MANY years ago, a little princess and her mother lived in a palace in London. They were often to be seen in the gardens, the princess playing in the sun, and her mother reading, close by, in the shade of the trees.

Sometimes the people who passed would stop, and look at this fair child. She was the Princess Victoria, and they knew that when her uncle died, she would be Queen of England. She was a bright little girl, happy with her dolls, who often had tea with her in the gardens, and with the dogs that ran races with her over the short grass. She was fond of play, and her mother, who was very wise, wanted her to be a happy child. But she was not allowed to forget her lessons.

When she was twelve years old, as she sat one day with her teacher, her mother came and put a paper into her history-book. On it were written the names of all the kings and queens of England. Victoria read the paper, and saw that her own name came after that of her uncle. She sat quietly down for some moments, and then looked at the lady who taught her.

"I will be good," she said. "I know now why you want me to learn my lessons so well. I will be very good." And she never forgot what she had learned that morning.

Six years of quiet, happy life passed for the young princess, and then, very early one June morning, a great change came. Some men were at the palace gates, and they had to knock many times before they were heard. "It is too soon to see the princess," they were told.

"But we have come to see the Queen," they said, and so it was made known that the King was dead. The young Queen met them in a few moments. Though she was only eighteen, she was now called to rule a great country.





QUEEN VICTORIA AS A YOUNG WOMAN.

FROM THE PAINTING BY JOHN PARTRIDGE.

## FREEING THE SLAVES

MANY years ago people found that they could make sugar from a long sweet cane, which grows in the West Indies, by pressing out the juice of the plant. White men went out to those islands, but they did not care to work there, because of the heat. So they tried to get the negroes, or black men, to dig the ground and look after the plants.

It was not easy to get enough men to do the work. Ships often went to Africa, the land where the black people lived, and the sailors would go on shore, catch as many men, women, and children as they could, and carry them off. The ships would then sail to the West Indies. The poor negroes were taken out and sold in the market-place to those who would give most money for them. They were then sent to the fields where the canes grew. Here they were made to work hard, and were often beaten with whips if they did not please their masters.

The negroes were never paid for the work they did, and often their food was not good. Their masters called them their slaves, and treated them very much as they did their horses or dogs. If a master wanted to get rid of his slaves, he sold them again in the market. Even the little boys and girls were taken from their mothers, who perhaps would never be able to see them again.

But some people were not like the slave-masters. Good and kind men in England thought it wrong to keep slaves, and they wanted to set them all free. Many of those who owned the slaves were very rich men. They looked upon the poor negroes as being worth so much money, and they did not wish to part with them unless they were given their value for them.

At last the people of Great Britain agreed to pay the owners a large sum of money, and then, on a certain day, every slave on British land became a free man.

## SOME NEW THINGS

ABOUT the time when George Stephenson was busy on his engines, another clever man was trying to make a ship that could move by means of steam, without the help of the wind.

The first steamer was very small, and was only used on a river. People from far and near went to look at it, for it was thought very strange to see a ship without sails making its way quickly through the water.

Another man found out a new way to spin cotton. He made a machine to take the place

of the old spinning-wheel, which up to that time had been used in so many homes. If you put some cotton into this machine, you will find it turned into yards and yards of fine, clean thread, which is ready to be made into cloth.

The Davy lamp was also a new thing in those days. Miners then had to work by the light of candles, and the flame often kindled a gas, thus causing many of the workers to be burned and killed. A learned man named Humphry Davy helped to make work in the mines much safer.

Seeing that a flame did not pass through a wire gauze, Davy had a lamp made which had wire gauze all round the burner. By means of this lamp a miner can tell when there is gas about him, for it burns with a blue flame inside the gauze. As soon as he sees this, he gets away to a safer place. In that way many thousands of lives have been saved.

There were also two men who worked hard to find out how messages might be sent from one place to another, without having them carried by any person. They tried to do this by means of a wire laid over the tops of tall poles.

Many people laughed at them, and said it could never be done. Still they tried again and again, and one day they were able to send a message by a wire from one station to another in London. When the answer came back, how pleased they both felt!

Now we can send messages in this way to all parts of the world; and, strange to say, we can also send them without any wire at all! We can talk to our friends when they are away from us, and hear what they have to say. We can also turn a little screw and have our rooms full of bright light; and in many of our cities and towns we can ride in electric cars through the streets, and go quickly from one part to another. And we must not forget the automobiles, or motor-cars, which move along without horses or rails.

These are all very wonderful things, of which the boys and girls of long ago never heard. How glad they would have been, if they could have known that such things would be here now, to live in our days!

## A GREAT WAR

ABOUT the middle of the last century there was a great war in the country called Russia, and the British and other nations took part in it. It was very cold and wet where English soldiers had to stay, and their tents were so chilly that many were sick. Kind people at home sent out



as many woolen things as they could make, to help the poor men through the winter.

The soldiers did not grumble. They were very true to their country, and fought bravely, in spite of the bitter weather. Once they did a very fine thing, which England can never forget. Some one had sent to tell the men of the Light Brigade, to charge the enemy. It was a great mistake, but the men did not wait to think of that. They were only six hundred, and in front of them was a great army of Russians. Still they never stopped. On they went, without turning to one side or the other.

They rode through the lines of the enemy, right up to the mouths of the big guns; and for a minute or two the Russians were so surprised that they let them go on. But now the gunners began to shoot again. Smoke and the noise of guns were everywhere, and man after man was shot down. Four hundred men of the Light Brigade fell, and how the others were able to come back they themselves hardly knew.

While the British soldiers were fighting bravely they were often very badly hurt, and in great pain from their wounds and from sickness. Many were left to die, because there was no one to take care of them. When people at home heard of this they felt very sorry, and one kind lady, who knew how to nurse the sick, said she would go to help them. Her name was Florence Nightingale. With other ladies, glad to go with her, she set out for the place where the sick men lay. She was never tired of working for the poor soldiers.

Day after day Florence Nightingale went round the hospital, looking after the wounds of the men, and trying to make them less painful. At night she used to go from bed to bed, carrying a little lamp in her hand, and the soldiers called her "the lady with the lamp." Whenever she saw a poor man in pain, she stopped and said a few kind words to him, and tried to do something to help him.

She never seemed to want sleep or rest. Her cool hand made hot heads feel better, and her low voice helped the wounded to forget how badly they had been hurt. No wonder that the soldiers loved her; she lived for others rather than for herself.

#### DAVID LIVINGSTONE

You have often heard of very poor boys who became great men. Some have made their names famous, and few more so than David Livingstone. When he was very young he was sent to work in a cotton-mill, from six o'clock

in the morning till eight at night. Still he was never tired of learning, and when he reached home, he sat down to read his books.

When he grew older he made up his mind to go to Africa and teach the people of that land about God. But first he had himself to be taught many things, for he wanted to be a doctor to the poor people, as well as a preacher.

After a while he set out, and he made many wonderful journeys. There were times when his life was in danger from wild animals; and once a lion bit his arm so badly, that the bone was quite marked with its teeth, and he was nearly killed. Wherever he went he did good to the people. His African servants loved him because he was so kind to them. They took great care of their master when he went about, and often carried him for miles through streams and marshes.

Once, when his friends in Britain were feeling very sad about him because they had not heard from him for a long time, the news came that another great traveler, named Henry M. Stanley, had found him on the shores of a beautiful lake. When they met, Livingstone had only a few black people with him, and they had very little to eat. Still he said he would not come home. Old and tired, he started on another journey, but he fell ill; and one morning he was found dead in his tent.

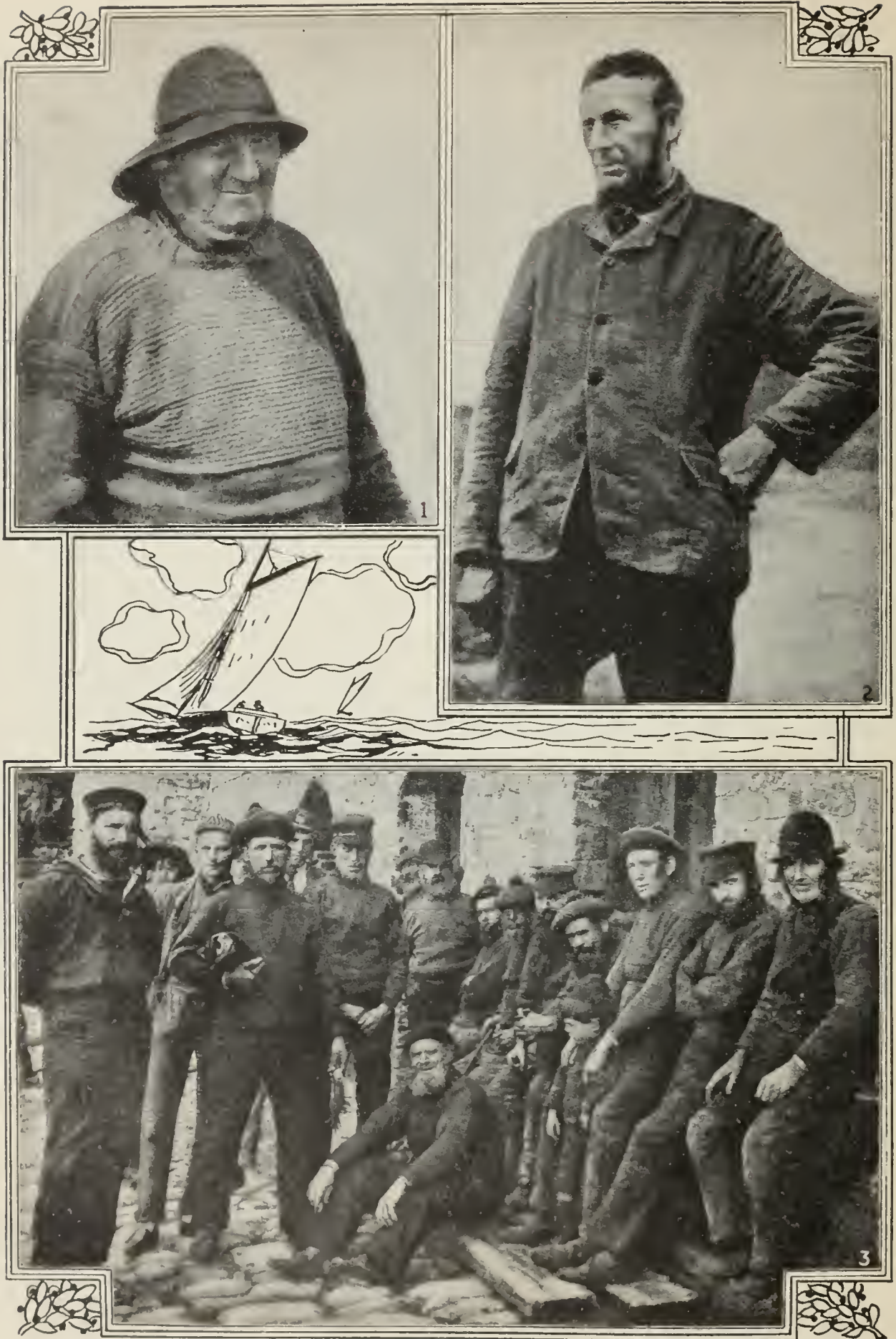
His body was carried all the way to the sea-coast, where it was put on board a ship for England; and it was buried with much honor in Westminster Abbey.

#### KING EDWARD THE SEVENTH

VICTORIA was a good Queen. She had many children, and no boys or girls ever had a better mother than they. The Queen's husband was Prince Albert, and their eldest son was named Albert Edward. The young Prince had playmates, and was brought up much in the same way as other children. "He is a pleasing, lively boy," said one who knew him at the age of six.

The good Queen died after she had been on the throne for nearly sixty-four years. No other queen or king of England had reigned so long, and the people felt very sorry, when she was gone. Prince Albert Edward now became King, and he is known as King Edward the Seventh, because there had been six Edwards on the throne before him.

There was much joy on the day he was crowned. Flags were hung out, big guns were fired, and the church-bells rang. In the streets of London were long lines of people standing.



SOME ENGLISH FOLK FROM COAST AND COUNTRYSIDE.

1. A LOWESTOFT SMACKSMAN, SUFFOLK.

3. DEVONSHIRE FISHERMEN.

2. A DERBYSHIRE YEOMAN.



They had come to see the King pass in a fine golden carriage drawn by many cream-colored horses.

The King was crowned in Westminster Abbey, and it was a fine sight. The Queen first went to her seat in the abbey, her beautiful robe of red velvet and white fur being carried by boys dressed as pages. A few minutes after, King Edward came in. He wore a crimson robe; a bishop walked on each side of him, and some soldiers were behind him.

When he had been seated a while, a gold covering was held over his head, and the archbishop poured a little oil on his head and breast. Then the crown was put on his head, trumpets were blown, and the bells rang.

All this time Queen Alexandra sat waiting her turn. Now she was crowned in the same way. When they went to their carriages again, they both wore their crowns, and they were loudly cheered by the people, who still lined the streets.

### THE GREAT DURBAR

SOON after he came to the throne, King Edward wanted to show the people of his colonies how much he cared for their happiness. And so his son, Prince George, Duke of York, with the duchess, was sent on board a fine steamer, called the "Ophir," to visit these far-off lands.

The duke and duchess went to countries as far apart as Australia and Canada, and sailed nearly twice round the world. It took them eight months to go such a long way, and everywhere the people were glad to see them. They had left their children with the King, and the little princes delighted in marking the voyage on a globe. When the duke came home again he received a hearty welcome, and the King gave him the title of Prince of Wales.

There was one large country, India, to which the prince could not go. The people of India were sorry when Queen Victoria died, and were eager to hear something about the new King.

There is a fine old city in India, called Delhi; in this city the emperor, or chief native ruler, used to live; and here, on New Year's Day 1903, a great meeting, called a durbar, was held. All the native princes came, wearing their most beautiful clothes and jewels. They rode on big elephants, over whose backs wonderful cloths of gold and silver were thrown. And with them came their soldiers and servants, and many bands of music.

The Viceroy, who rules in the name of the King, was there; and with him was the King's

brother, the Duke of Connaught. Many lords and ladies, and great English people, had also gone to see the durbar, for it was a very wonderful sight.

Close to a big camp of eighty thousand tents, a large building, shaped like a horseshoe, had been raised to seat many thousands of people. When the Viceroy arrived, all those present rose to their feet. The heralds blew their trumpets, after which a message was read from the King; the Viceroy spoke to the people, and the bands played "God Save the King."

Then, one by one, the native princes came up to the Viceroy, and said they would always be true to their Emperor—for that is the title given to the King of England as ruler of India. And so India, like other parts of the British Empire, showed its loyalty to the King who ruled in his mother's stead.

The people of England, and of other parts of the great British Empire, were deeply grieved by the death of King Edward, which befell in the year 1910. The Prince of Wales at once became King. In the following year he went to India, and at Delhi another great durbar was held, and the English King was welcomed by the people as their new Emperor. He is known as George the Fifth.

### A SAIL ROUND THE EMERALD ISLE

FROM England across the blue waters of the Irish Sea and St. George's Channel; and, from Scotland across the narrow North Channel, lies Ireland, a beautiful country inhabited by a people as famous for their ready wit of speech as their kindly treatment of strangers.

The northern, western and southern shores of Ireland are open to the Atlantic Ocean, and like those of Scotland similarly placed, are deeply worn by the fury of the waves. Our voyage around the island will commence at Dublin, which is reached from England by steamer from Holyhead. We leave Kingstown early in the morning in a coasting steamer, and after passing the breakwater, turn south toward Wicklow Head. We pass a range of floating light-ships, which warn sailors against dangerous sand-banks. At Carnsore Point, the southeastern corner of Ireland, we turn to the west. We do not enter the splendid harbor of Waterford, but pass on direct to Queenstown.

The cove of Cork, as Queenstown harbor used to be called, is one of the loveliest havens in the world. It is completely landlocked; is three miles long, two miles wide, and its expanse is broken by two small islands. The land rises



From stereograph, copyright by Underwood & Underwood, New York.

THE CROMLECH OF BALLYMASCANLAN.

(About 4 miles N. E. of Dundalk. The cap-stone measures  $12\frac{1}{2} \times 9\frac{1}{4}$  feet, is about 6 feet thick, and weighs about 35 tons.)



abruptly from the water's edge to a height of several hundred feet. The great steamers of most of the lines running to New York call here, so that the harbor is generally busy with shipping; and, seen under a sunny sky, few landscapes are so fair and beautiful.

On resuming our voyage we catch a glimpse of Kinsale Harbor. The harbor is full of life in the season, the fishing-smacks gathered here coming from Yarmouth, Penzance, Isle of Man, and elsewhere, in search of the herring and mackerel so plentiful on these coasts.

The western coast of Ireland, which we now approach, is very bold and rugged, presenting some of the grandest cliff-scenery in the world. Bantry Bay, one of the finest harbors in Europe, is as much as twenty-five miles long. This great natural harbor is often visited by English warships. Valentia Island, separated from the mainland by a strait half a mile wide, is the station of the Atlantic Telegraph Company. From this point, messages are sent direct to New York.

Crossing Dingle Bay and the Shannon estuary, we pass on our way Galway, a port on the bay of the same name. The coast suddenly bends eastward, but we sail straight across Donegal Bay, and sweeping northward, gradually turn eastward along the north coast.

Lough Swilly runs far inland, but is not nearly so important as Lough Foyle. On Lough Foyle is Moville, where many American-bound steamers bid farewell to the British Isles. A few miles to the east of Lough Foyle is that wonderful natural curiosity, the Giant's Causeway. It consists of about forty thousand columns, only a few feet above the level of the sea, jutting out from the cliffs, and rising two or three hundred feet close behind them. They gradually sink beneath the waves, forming a fine natural pier. How far beneath the sea they extend is unknown; but as the same formation exists at Staffa, an island off the coast of Scotland, it is reasonable to suppose that they stretch across to the Scottish shores.

The pillars vary in length from forty to fifty-five feet, and have from three to eight sides; but those having six are the most common by far. The surface formed by the summits of the pillars is so smooth, and the joints are so close, that the blade of a knife can hardly be forced between them.

The North Channel, which divides Ireland from Scotland, is only fourteen miles wide. We pass Belfast Lough, and sail under the shadow of the Mourne Mountains, with some pretty watering-places at their feet, and end our voyage where it began, at Dublin.

## "BEAUTY WANDERS EVERYWHERE"

THE surface of Ireland reminds one of a rough saucer with its edges broken away in places to let out the water that accumulates in the flat inner part. The mountains are nearly all around the coast, while the central plain contains many bogs, slow rivers and lakes. Munster, the province in the southwest, is the most mountainous part of Ireland. The headlands run far into the Atlantic, and between them, in the opposite direction, flow the Bandon, Lee, and Blackwater, into the harbors of the south coast.

Among the mountains of Munster are the lovely lakes of Killarney. Ireland is in many respects a beautiful country, and is annually becoming the resort of a larger number of tourists, but Killarney is the beauty-spot of the country. The lakes are three in number, connected by a winding channel. Rising from their banks are the highest summits in Ireland. It is said that there are thirty-three islands in the lower lake, one of which, Innisfallen, has been admired by every traveler.

In Ulster the Mourne Mountains rise on the coast of the Irish Sea. They too are becoming more and more popular with holiday makers from other parts.

The bogs of Ireland are a distinct feature, belonging neither to mountain nor plain altogether, but partaking of the character of both. It is said that in the whole country there are nearly five thousand square miles of flat and mountain bog. In the mountain districts, peat-bogs are found, and the level country is often covered with a black, heavy, earthy turf.

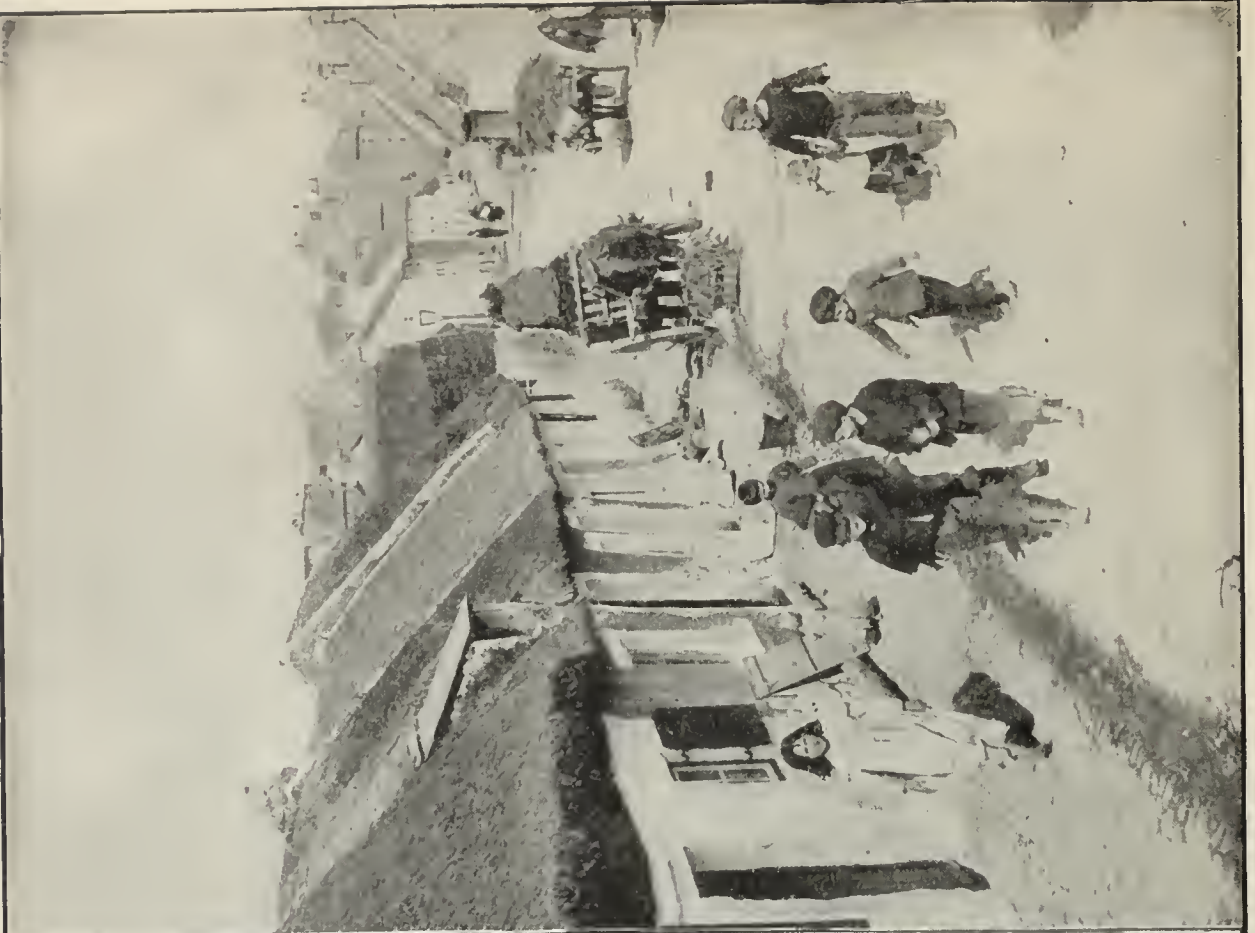
Ireland possesses the longest river in the British Isles. The Shannon rises to the north of Lough Allen, where it is only one hundred and sixty feet above the sea. Thence it flows lazily over the Central Plain, twice expanding into the form of a lake. Then it enters a gorge, and with a rapid fall reaches Limerick, where it becomes a tidal river, with a broad, deep estuary sixty miles long. The only other rivers of importance are the Bann, on the north, which drains Lough Neagh, and the Boyne, which flows into the Irish Sea.

Lough Neagh is the largest lake in the British Isles, having an area of one hundred and fifty square miles. Some parts of its shores are varied with beautiful scenery. The Bann is, like the Shannon, a famous salmon-river. Ireland contains numerous other lakes, among which, Lough Erne is celebrated for its hundreds of beautifully wooded islands.



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A POSTMAN'S COTTAGE IN MONAGHAN.



SCENES IN IRELAND.

CLADDAGH, A SUBURB OF GALWAY.



## IRELAND AND HER PEOPLE AS THEY ARE TO-DAY

THE Irish belong to the same race as the Scotch Highlanders and the Welsh—the Celtic. In Ulster, however, the inhabitants are descended chiefly from English and Scotch settlers of the time of James the First. This accounts for Ulster being Protestant while other provinces are Roman Catholic. After the terrible failure of the potato crop in 1846 the population became less and less, but of late it has been somewhat increased. In 1911 it was not quite five millions.

Its nearness to the Atlantic causes Ireland to have a very heavy rainfall, and this, with the mildness of the climate, makes it a grazing country unsurpassed by any in Europe. The Emerald Isle is noted for horses and pigs. Almost every family keeps one or more pigs, from which a welcome profit is made. The farms are small, and the cultivation is not very good. The potato is the principal crop and oats are commonly cultivated. Flax and hemp are grown in Ulster for the linen manufacture. Butter is an important article in the high lands, and eggs are very largely exported to the English markets.

The seas around Ireland swarm with fish. Large shoals of herrings visit the coast annually, while pilchards, sprats, and sand-eels swarm in the bays and creeks. These fisheries, however, are mostly followed by Manxmen and Scotchmen rather than the Irish themselves.

The manufacturing industries of Ireland are not very great, owing to the poverty of the country in useful minerals, and to the great lack of coal, which is only found in Kilkenny, where its quality is very poor. Irish marbles are much sought after, and a bed of iron extends along the Antrim coast, sometimes three or four feet

in thickness. This ore is exported and smelted in the Scottish iron district.

The only really great industry is the linen trade of Ulster, and Belfast is the great trading and manufacturing center of Ireland. Its streets are wide, airy, and clean; and many large factories, both for spinning and weaving flax, are found here. But Belfast is still more famous for its great ship-building yards. Many of the great floating palaces that make fast passages across the Atlantic were built here. The country around Belfast is also busily employed in the linen manufacture, or in cultivating the flax—in fact, the county of Armagh may be compared to a well-tilled garden.

Dublin, the capital of Ireland, is a very fine city. Situated on the Liffey, with very beautiful surroundings, it possesses handsome streets and well-kept squares. Phoenix Park is an enclosed tract of one thousand acres, and Sackville Street is equal to any in Europe. Dublin contains two cathedrals, a university, the old Parliament House, a custom-house and the Castle, now the official residence of the Lord Lieutenant.

Cork was for a long time the second city of Ireland, but Belfast is now much larger. Cork city occupies a beautiful situation on the Lee. From Blackrock to Queenstown the river may be said to form a series of charming lakes, each more beautiful than the last. Londonderry, which stood the famous siege of which we have told you, is situated on the Foyle. The city is noted for its shirt-making industry.

Ireland has but little foreign trade. Her many ports communicate with those of Great Britain, to which she sends supplies of cattle, bacon, butter and eggs, linen goods, etc., receiving in return manufactured goods, products of British colonies, and coal from the mines of England and Scotland.





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